

# The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume II.  
Number 4.

PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER, 1910.

\$1.00 a year  
15 cents a copy

## TO THE Delaware Pilots.

**W**E took the Pleasure, some Days since, of kindly admonishing you *to do your Duty*; if perchance you should meet with the (*Tea*;) SHIP POLLY, CAPTAIN AYRES; a THREE DECKER which is hourly expected.

We have now to add, that Matters ripen fast here; and that *much is expected from these Lads who meet with the Tea Ship*.... There is some Talk of a HANDSOME REWARD FOR THE PILOT WHO GIVES THE FIRST GOOD ACCOUNT OF HER.... How that may be, we cannot for certain determine: But all agree, that TAR and FEATHERS will be his Portion, who pilots her into this Harbour. And we will answer for ourselves, that, whoever is committed to us, as an Offender against the Rights of America, will experience the utmost Exertion of our Abilities, as

THE COMMITTEE FOR TARRING AND FEATHERING.

P. S. We expect you will furnish yourselves with Copies of the foregoing and following Letter, which are printed for this Purpose, that the Pilot who meets with Captain Ayres may favor him with a Sight

*Committee of Tarring and Feathering*

## T O Capt. A Y R E S,

Of the SHIP P O L L Y, on a Voyage from London to Philadelphia.

S I R,

**W**E are informed that you have, imprudently, taken Charge of a Quantity of Tea, which has been sent out by the India Company, under the Auspices of the Ministry, as a Trial of American Virtue and Resolution.

Now, as your Cargo, on your Arrival here, will most assuredly bring you into hot water; and as you are perhaps a Stranger to these Parts, we have concluded to advise you of the present Situation of Affairs in Philadelphia.... that, taking Time by the Forelock, you may stop short in your dangerous Errand.... secure your Ship against the Rafts of combustible Matter which may be set on Fire, and turned loose against her; and more than all this, that you may preserve your own Person, from the Pitch and Feathers that are prepared for you.

In the first Place, we must tell you, that the Pennsylvanians are, to a Man, passionately fond of Freedom, the Birthright of Americans; and at all Events are determined to enjoy it

That they sincerely believe, no Power on the Face of the Earth has a Right to tax them without their Consent

That in their Opinion, the Tea in your Custody is designed by the Ministry to enforce such a Tax, which they will undoubtedly oppose; and in so doing, give you every possible Obstruction

We are nominated to a very disagreeable, but necessary Service.... To our Care are committed all Offenders against the Rights of America; and hapless is he, whose evil Destiny has doomed him to suffer at our Hands.

You are sent out on a diabolical Service; and if you are so foolish and obdurate as to complete your Voyage; by bringing your Ship to Anchor in this Port, you may run such a Gauntlet, as will induce you, in your last Moments, most heartily to curse those who have made you the Dupe of their Avarice and Ambition

What think you Captain, of a Halter round your Neck.... ten Gallons of liquid Tar decanted on your Face.... with the Feathers of a dozen wild Geese laid over that to enliven your Appearance?

Only think seriously of this.... and fly to the Place from whence you came.... fly without Hesitation.... without the Formality of a Protest.... and above all, Captain Ayres let us advise you to fly without the wild Geese Feathers.

Your Friends to serve

Philadelphia, Nov. 27, 1773

THE COMMITTEE as before subscribed

AN EARLY REVOLUTIONARY BROADSIDE. See page 88.

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## The History Teacher's Magazine

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## What Is History?\*

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD P. CHEYNEY, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

What is history? Let us go to the Father of History and ask him. Herodotus introduces his work by saying, "This is a publication of the researches of Herodotus of Halicarnassus, in order that the actions of men may not be effaced by time, nor the great and wondrous deeds displayed both by Greeks and barbarians deprived of renown, and why the Greeks and barbarians waged war on one another."

His object, that is to say, is to recount the actions of men and the causes of them. It is true that the actions which he is to recount are only the great actions, and the men whose deeds are thought worthy of notice are only the great men. All the rest of mankind with all their doings are relegated to a dim and misty obscurity. Nevertheless, the main idea of Herodotus is clear. He does not want a good story to be lost and forgotten, therefore he will tell us what happened. He looks upon history simply as a tale of the doings of men.

Other Greek and later historians have looked upon the matter differently. Thucydides says, "Perhaps the lack of wonderful stories in my work will make it less pleasing to my readers; but it will be enough for me if it proves to be useful to those who want to have a clear knowledge of the past, and thereby of that which, according to the course of human events, will happen again." According to Thucydides, therefore, history is not merely a narrative, it should be useful. Polybius, likewise, criticizing Herodotus, says, "It is not enough merely to describe the course of events, one must seek to understand the why and the wherefore of them, in order to draw instruction therefrom." A German historian of the seventeenth century says, "History is that which teaches the reader what things in life are useful and to be followed, or injurious and to be avoided." A modern English historian says, "History is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the law of right and wrong." That is to say, history, according to this view of the case, is meant to instruct. It should teach some lesson. The lesson may be a political one or a moral one or a religious one. But it is always history with a purpose,—its justification is ethical.

Far and wide through historical writing can be found this ideal. Sometimes it is consciously and strongly held. There is a work in eight volumes in the University Library with the title, "The History of England on Christian Principles." Sometimes it is less consciously and clearly acknowledged, and yet the historian none the less tells his story under its influence. Macaulay is a devotee of the Whig party and is teaching its doctrines when he is writing his history of the seventeenth century as much as when he is speaking of voting in Parliament in the nineteenth. Froude uses his history of England to teach the evils of the Roman Catholic Church and to discredit Anglican clericalism, exactly as he uses any of his other forms of writing.

The moral purpose of the historian often appears as a patriotic purpose. Bancroft wrote his history in such a way that Americans should think well of their country, much as

Gilbert Stuart painted Washington in such a way that Americans should feel universal admiration for the Father of his Country. Livy in writing the history of Rome is obviously trying to teach his readers devotion to it.

This patriotic sentiment is not only the most familiar form of history with a moral purpose, but it has lent much spirit and interest to historical writing. Green's "History of the English People" is permeated by a gentle and sincere patriotism that conciliates his readers and casts a glamour over the whole of English History. Thiers's admiration for Napoleon and devotion to France have infused a fire into his "Consulate and Empire" that have led to their constant republication in France and other countries. Treitschke and Sybel have given a genuine popular defense for the modern Prussian state in their great histories of Germany in the nineteenth century.

Patriotic history, when mixed with certain other ingredients, forms excellent poetry. Kipling makes his two English children standing on a Sussex hillside learn their history from the fairy Puck as he points out to them its visible marks around them.

See you the dimpled track that runs,  
All hollow through the wheat?  
O that was where they hauled the guns  
That smote King Philip's fleet.

See you our little mill that clacks,  
So busy by the brook?  
She has ground her corn and paid her tax  
Ever since Domesday Book.

See you our stilly woods of oak,  
And the dread ditch beside?  
O that was where the Saxons broke,  
On the day that Harold died.

See you the windy levels spread  
About the gates of Rye?  
O that was where the Northmen fled,  
When Alfred's ships came by.

See you our pastures wide and lone,  
Where the red oxen browse?  
O there was a City thronged and known,  
Ere London boasted a house.

And see you, after rain, the trace  
Of mound and ditch and wall?  
O that was a Legion's camping-place,  
When Cæsar sailed from Gaul.

And see you marks that show and fade,  
Like shadows on the Downs?  
O they are the lines the Flint Men made,  
To guard their wondrous towns.

Trackway and Camp and City lost,  
Salt marsh where now is corn,  
Old Wars, old Peace, old Arts that cease,  
And so was England born!

\*This address was delivered before the Graduate School of the University of Pennsylvania on Oct. 3, 1907, and subsequently printed in the *Alumni Register* for Nov., 1907. It is here reprinted by permission of Professor Cheyney and the authorities of the University.—EDITOR.

How much of long-past and recently-past history is reflected in the present poet-laureate's fine appeal of England to Ireland:

Spouse whom my sword in the olden time won me,  
Winning me hatred more sharp than a sword—  
Mother of children who hiss at or shun me,  
Curse or revile me, and hold me abhorred—  
Heiress of anger that nothing assuages,  
Mad for the future and mad for the past—  
Daughter of all the implacable ages,  
Lo, let us turn and be lovers at last!

Lovers whom tragical sin hath made equal,  
One in transgression and one in remorse,  
Bonds may be severed, but what were the sequel?  
Hardly shall amity come of divorce.  
Let the dead Past have a royal entombing,  
O'er it the future built white for a fane!  
I that am haughty from much overcoming  
Sue to thee, supplicate—nay, is it vain?

Hate and mistrust are the children of blindness,—  
Could we but see one another, 'twere well!  
Knowledge is sympathy, charity, kindness,  
Ignorance only is maker of hell.  
Could we but gaze for an hour, for a minute,  
Deep in each other's unfaltering eyes,  
Love were begun—for that look would begin it—  
Born in the flash of a mighty surprise.

History no doubt can be written, has been frequently written, in prose as lofty as poetry, in such a way that certain moral or religious or political principles, broad and fundamental, or narrow and contentious, are brought out. In the vast mass of historical facts the historian will naturally find those that he seeks, and he may, if he will, arrange his materials and make moral reflections upon them in a cordance with his beliefs and preconceptions.

But this ideal costs its price. The historian under its influence feels called upon to make ethical judgments of actions and of men,—defending or condemning historical personages and their actions. Men of the past are thought of as models to be followed or warnings of what is to be avoided, or at least as objects of admiration or dislike. This leads to the habit of ascribing extreme historical importance to the character and work of individuals and correspondingly little influence to the general conditions of the time or to the great mass of people. Good and bad motives can be ascribed to persons, not to the conditions of civilization that surround them; certain named persons can be praised or blamed, the great unnamed masses cannot be. So the historian dilates on the psychological and moral characteristics of a few prominent individuals and supposes them to have had great freedom of action and an unbounded extent of influence. Motley's William of Orange, and Philip of Spain, Carlyle's Robespierre and Cromwell, Froude's Henry VIII. Macaulay's William III, and a crowd of lesser heroes of lesser historians owe much of their conspicuous position in history to the admiration and condemnation of them in the mind of their historians; and history itself comes to be looked upon as the acts of a few great men using the rest of mankind simply as their instruments.

But the greatest price we have to pay for this ethical attitude toward history is the intense subjectivity it gives to it. Everything comes to the reader as interpreted by the historian. Everything is seen through the medium of his personality. The facts of history when they are used to teach a moral lesson do not reach us in their entirety, nor grouped and generalized according to their internal relations, but selected and arranged according to the overmastering ideal in the mind of the historian. The reader is at the historian's mercy. The same set of facts, that is to say

the history of the same country or period, comes to us as a Catholic, a Protestant or an Anglican history, according to the lesson that the historian wants to teach. We have histories of the French Revolution from the French, the English and the German,—from the republican and the royalist point of view. A certain series of events will appear entirely different, under this ideal, according as the person who recounts them is a rationalist or a devotee. We must balance Whig against Tory, Northerner against Southerner. The conflicts of the past are perpetuated by the very chroniclers who recount their history. Thus history sells its birth-right of truth for a mess of the pottage of partisanship. If the function of history is to teach, it fulfills it but ill when the lesson to be drawn from it depends so largely on the interpreter.

But let us turn to another ideal. We may find it also among the ancients. Phylarchus is described by a contemporary as "amazing his readers by a series of thrilling anecdotes," as "studying dramatic propriety like a writer of tragedy." Livy speaks of the new historians of his time as believing that they can "by their skill in the art of writing improve on the rudeness of ancient writers." We have similar modern aphorisms. "History should make the past live again." "A history should always be an epic." This is a literary or aesthetic ideal. Its choice of subject, its selection of material, its form of arrangement and statement are dominated by literary, almost by artistic feeling. History is looked upon as a branch of literature. Just as the former view of history was that it should instruct, so this is that it should please. Daunou, in his *Cours d'études historiques*, delivered at the Collège de France seventy-five or eighty years ago, brings out clearly this view of history. He advises the writer of history to read modern novels as examples. He says: "They will teach the method of giving an artistic pose to persons and events, of distributing details, of skillfully carrying on the thread of the narrative, of interrupting it, of resuming it, of sustaining the attention and provoking the curiosity of the reader." In as far as the historian is under this influence he feels the same intellectual elevation, the same creative activity as the writer of a literary essay, a work of fiction, a poem. When Motley, for instance, in his "Rise of the Dutch Republic," describes the scene at the punishment of Ghent by the Emperor Charles V; its civic officials in their black robes, the military bodies, the guildsmen thronging the hall and the populace crowding the streets, his mind reverts to another great epic scene where

High on a throne of royal state, which far  
Outshone the wealth of Ormuz or of Ind,  
Or where the gorgeous east with richest hand  
Showers on her kings barbaric pearls and gold,  
Satan exalted sat—

and he closes his own description with the fine parody, "High on his throne, with the Queen Regent at his side, surrounded by princes, prelates and nobles, guarded by his archers and halberdiers, his crown on his head and his sceptre in his hand, the Emperor, exalted, sat." That is to say, Motley is writing in much the same spirit as Milton, though, of course, on a vastly lower poetic plane.

Such an ideal leads to the selection of dramatic periods for treatment. Froude begins his history with the fall of Wolsey, when the conflict between the English king and the Roman Catholic system was definitely joined, and announces that it is to extend to the death of Elizabeth. But when Mary, Queen of Scots, has been executed, when the Invincible Armada has been conquered, and the great contest he has been describing seems to be settled, his dramatic sense tells him that the play, conceiving his period of English history as a play, is over. Therefore, as a dramatist rather than as a historian, he draws down the curtain, closes his



book, and leaves the narrative of the last fifteen troubled, difficult and important years of the period he had announced untold. The military conquest of Mexico and Peru by brilliant Spanish *conquistadores* attracted its historian much earlier than the spread of civilized settlement and peaceful development over the interior of the United States. Periods of war have always attracted more historians than have periods of peace.

This treatment gives to history the charm possessed by every work of art. Vigor, grace, color, life, flourish under the dominion of the literary spirit and thrive among literary associations. Macaulay's fine impressiveness, the picturesque delineations of Prescott and Irving, the grace and eloquence of the French historians of the early nineteenth century, are due for the most part to the prominence of the literary ideal in the minds of these writers.

But accompanying these qualities and, unfortunately, almost always characterizing the literary treatment of history, is its weak hold on reality, its incautious use of its materials. In as far as a historian is influenced by this ideal, he is thinking, in reality, first of his reader, only secondarily of his facts. He is striving to produce an æsthetic effect, not to elucidate the past. Therefore he does not look narrowly at what he finds in his contemporary sources. He carelessly misinterprets them, he neglects much that is there but which is not suited to literary uses; he sometimes finds things that are not there at all. His creative imagination is apt to act like that of the poet:

As imagination bodies forth  
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen  
Turns them to shapes, and gives to airy nothing  
A local habitation and a name.  
Such tricks hath strong imagination.

The use of the imagination is an absolute necessity in all intellectual production, but it is also the most dangerous of all foes to clear and exact knowledge. We live in hereditary servitude to our imagination. Through a long line of descent it has possessed a supremacy against which the thoughtful man must struggle for intellectual freedom. This is a matter of evolution and is universal in its action. The bird or the rabbit that perceives a dark shadow passing over it, immediately sees or thinks it sees the spreading wings, the curved talons, and the hungry beak of the hawk swooping down on it, as it cowers close among the grass or leaves, although the shadow may be only that of a passing cloud. Primitive man must have learned to spring to shelter at many a harmless crackling among the bushes that nevertheless brought into his mind a picture of some hungry wild beast, or else we, his remote descendants, would not be here. And the brain that we have inherited from him has not forgotten its old trick of self-deception. We, like he did, live in a world of self-created ideas, only kept measurably close to reality by the most rigorous mental habits. The historian is subject to the common temptation; so in the mind of Motley grows up the picture of an imaginary Philip II, a cruel, calculating, malevolent being, sitting in his study at Madrid, holding the threads of a great conspiracy against the happiness and well-being of the people of half of Europe and all of America. So Livy and Tacitus and a crowd of other historians, like the poets and the moralists, look back to a purely imaginary early period of virtue and honor and unselfishness. So our historical traditions become full of extraordinarily good and extraordinarily bad people; certain periods are described as pre-eminently happy and others as unspeakably miserable; institutions are believed to have existed which would have been destructive to the human race; historic shadows are apt to fall preternaturally dark and the lights to glow incredibly bright. Imagination plays a brilliant but a deceptive part in history.

The borderland between history as a form of literature and

historical fiction is a shifting and an uncertain one. Well on one side of the boundary we have fine constructive historical literature; well on the other, we have admirable historical novels; but between the two there is a debatable land where outlaws continually dwell,—some of the "histories" of Thierry, Froude, and Thomas Watson, for instance; some of the "novels" of Chateaubriand, Georg Ebers, and Miss Mühlbach and their congeners,—exiled from the more orderly regions on both sides by the critics, historical or literary, who represent established rule in both realms.

There are still other historical ideals. One man, a philosopher, says that the proper object of history is the training of the time-concept; that is to say, the life of a single man is so short that it is only by considering the life of the whole human race that we can get any adequate idea of the meaning of the expression "time." I am inclined to believe that more than one of my specialist colleagues in this faculty looks on history as a sort of background of general occurrences and conditions on which his special objects of interest are projected; a sort of Greek chorus to explain and comment, while the development of English or French or German literature, or mathematics, or political economy, or chemistry, or philosophy, occupies the center of the stage. And far be it from me to deny the name of history to any of the forms of writing we have discussed. History is not a definite technical term, like geometry, or chemistry, or logic, or astronomy. It is a broad, general expression, more nearly analogous to the words "science" or "philosophy." In actual usage, even by historians, it connotes little more than the fact that the matters under consideration have occurred in the past, rather than in the present. There are not merely two forms, good history and bad history. There may be many types of reasonably good history. Nor is any one writer entirely under the domination of any one historical ideal; several may exist coincidentally in his mind; he may at different times be influenced more largely by one or another conception of his subject; nevertheless the fact remains that the ethical, the literary and the specialist's types of history that have now been reviewed have been and are especially widespread and influential.

I want now to turn to another ideal, which looks at history from no one of these points of view; which conceives of it neither as primarily intended to give instruction nor primarily to give pleasure; which does not place it in the service of any other particular branch of knowledge, but allows it to exist for its own sake. According to this conception of history, the past is looked at simply, directly, objectively; it is conceived of as merely something to be understood and explained.

Just as a geologist studies the physical conformation of a country, its strata and its fossils, endeavors to understand and then to describe the conditions they indicate; just as the astronomer makes his observations and investigations and reaches the results of his study; just as the student of any branch of knowledge approaches his subject, so the historian may approach the past of the human race, study what mankind has done and said and thought, strive to understand, strive to explain. He can look upon his subject as simply a body of facts, to be investigated and described for their own sakes; not with a view of drawing a lesson from them, not with a view of praising or blaming any one, not with a view of so choosing and putting the facts as to give emotional pleasure to the reader,—not, in fact, with any ulterior purpose whatever; but simply to take human history as his object of study,—just as one might take any other group of phenomena.

This is the modern scholar's conception of history, as contrasted with the ethical or the literary conception. It might be called the scientific method of treating history. The scientific method means nothing more than the simple method; the direct approach to a subject, seeking knowl-

edge for its own sake, without ulterior objects or ultimate expectations of any kind from it, using accurate methods of observation, logical processes of classification, trained powers of comprehension and explanation,—that is all that a scientific method means, and it is just as applicable to history as to any other field of knowledge.

Such an answer to the question, what is history?—such an historical ideal, has, like others, its own rewards and its own demands. It must not be supposed, in the first place, that such historical work is necessarily a thankless or an unappreciated task. More than fifty years ago a fellow-townsmen of ours, Mr. Lea, took up the study of the history of medieval law and certain medieval and early modern institutions, especially those connected with the church. He is still at work in that field, and at this very moment, in all probability, his fine gray head is bending over the proof sheets of the fourth and final volume of his "History of the Spanish Inquisition." He had from the beginning an intense desire to know, and an open mind. He felt no attraction to polemical and secondary discussion, but went direct to the raw material from which all historical knowledge must be constructed. He has had means that have enabled him to gather in his own library a great body of such sources of history as are published, and to have many manuscripts copied from the libraries of Europe; he has applied keen mental powers and infinite industry and perseverance to these materials, and has given to the world just what he has found. This has been embodied in some fifteen volumes, which have been published from time to time during the half century of his labors. They are not, of course, popular history, and their titles are not such as to conciliate popular interest. Nevertheless many thousand copies and repeated editions have been printed, sold and read; they are to be found in every public and many private libraries; every scholar interested in the history of the Middle Ages knows and uses them; every professor of history who teaches that period requires his students to read parts of them; they have been translated into various languages, and they stand now as representing the principal body of acquired knowledge in that portion of the history of the world. In many circles in many cities of Europe you might name over the list of Philadelphia's business men, lawyers and physicians, and find that not a name was recognized. The first gleam of recognition to give comfort to our local patriotism would come with the mention of Henry C. Lea.\*

We might come still nearer home in our search for a test of appreciation of purely scholarly history. In our midst, I refer to the head of my own department, is one who, when American history was invariably written with one tendency or another, began the writing of it absolutely without partisanship; who, when the romantic episodes of colonial days were familiar, but the period since the Revolutionary War relatively unknown, began to tell the great story of our national existence; who, when the historical material used was only that found in statutes, legislative proceedings, public correspondence and other such official documents, examined and utilized all the sources for the knowledge of our past. With no special lesson to teach or philosophy to maintain, and only interested to find out and to understand and to explain, he entered on the survey of all the varied interests of our nation since we have been a nation, and in this spirit has written the "History of the People of the United States." It has become one of our "standard" histories. Some thirty thousand copies are spread through the community, to exercise with similar modern works a widespread influence. The history of our national period, is now at least as well known as that of the colonial period, the times of peace have been raised in general estimation to at least as high a level of interest as those of war, the prevailing attitude toward the study of the first century of our national

history is one of nonpartisanship, there is no longer any body of historical material which is completely neglected. The influence of such work on methods of study has been even deeper than its addition to our knowledge. Now the mere post-graduate student of American History approaches his subject from a direction, and uses material that twenty-five years ago the veteran did not know. The very completeness with which the work has been accomplished is apt to blind us to its extent; but it cannot diminish the service performed by, or the honor due to, the pioneer who first hewed out a way for himself and for us. It is not therefore the admiration of a pupil for his teacher, it is not loyalty to a colleague, it is no mere attachment to a friend, that leads me to take as an example of not unappreciated and yet purely objective treatment of history, calm, impersonal, unprejudiced as to persons or as to parties, dominated by the single object of making clear the past, the work of Professor McMaster.

Not only is scholarly historical work not unappreciated by others, it is a worthy work for the man who does it. It calls for all the mental powers with which he may be endowed. Historical investigation is a work of infinite difficulty. Not only must the historian spend "laborious days and wakeful nights," but he must bring to his work ability and training. The material with which he has to work is enormous in amount, difficult to collect, difficult to classify, difficult to interpret. The geologist, the chemist, the biologist, the student of literature, all make their own observations. The facts they work with are what they have themselves seen or can otherwise test by direct means. The historical facts with which we must deal come to us, for the most part, not through our own observations, but on the testimony of men who once saw or heard them but are now long dead. We must weigh and measure their credibility, their opportunity and their ability to have observed correctly. Our facts often come to us clothed in dead languages and obscure terms. We must find out just what these mean.

No power to put ourselves mentally into another's place can be too great for the historian's needs. We read the statements of a medieval or an ancient chronicler. He was a man of another age than our own, surrounded by institutions which have long since disappeared, ruled by ideas that are not our ideas, using the names of things that we have never seen. How shall we comprehend and interpret what he tells us? Here is the need for the historic imagination; its normal use is in understanding and interpreting the sources, not in writing the final draught of the narrative.

No keenness of mental analysis is too great for historical uses. Historical facts are often the actions, the words, the very thoughts and motives of men, and we must make a psychological judgment of them. No moral powers, no breadth of sympathy, no capacity for entering into the feelings as well as the thoughts of other men comes amiss. For the scholarly historian must understand, and in a certain sense take part with both sides of all the controversies of the past. He must appreciate the horror of the orthodox for heresy and he must sympathize with the heretic who cannot accept the teachings of those in authority. He must enter into the slaveholder's point of view, and he must comprehend the antagonism to slavery of the abolitionist. He must rise above the controversial elements in these conflicts and see why each party felt as it did. This can only be done by adding to a knowledge of the circumstances a genuine sympathetic comprehension of the feelings or belief of each side. A certain largeness of view is requisite for a study which is concerned with the doings of all mankind and with the thoughts and feelings of all representatives of our race.

No power over our glorious mother tongue can be spared by the scientific historian. Perfect clarity in stating the results of his investigations, the choice of the right word to represent every shade of human experience in the past, force

\* Mr. Lea died on October 24, 1909.—EDITOR.



to describe past conditions, and even eloquence to describe past events, all can be well utilized, so far as gifts or training put them into the possession of the historian. This, you may say, brings us back to history as a form of literature. Far from it. The question with which we have been concerned is of ideals, not of instruments. What I am now pleading for is literary power and effectiveness as a means, not as an end; as a tool in the hands of the scholarly historian, not as a final object to be sought for for its own sake. So long as our historical ideal remains the simple and accurate discovery and statement of what has occurred in the past, the use of all the resources of our language is nothing more than a wise utilization of all available means to that end.

So there need be no fear that this historical ideal will not exercise all the powers that can be brought into its service. Moreover, it has its own exhilaration and charm. The scientific writer of history builds no Gothic cathedral, full of irregularities and suggestiveness, aspiring arches, niches filled with sacred or grotesque figures, and aisles dim with religious light,—that is work for the literary historian. But he builds a classic temple: simple, severe, symmetrical in its lines, surrounded by the clear, bright light of truth, pervaded by the spirit of moderation. Every historical fact is a stone hewn from the quarry of past records; it must be solid and square and even-hued—an ascertained fact. Whether it is a deed, a word, a motive, a custom, a condition,—it must have really existed in the past. And whether the historian is describing the life of some person, or the history of some nation, a short period of time, or a single aspect of the history of some period, the discovery of a country, the foundation of a commonwealth, or the progress of a revolution, or it may be only the formation of some treaty, or the inception of some war—he is still a builder. He must examine all his materials; he must know all the facts which can be ascertained concerning his subject; he must select those which are available for his purpose, those which really help to explain his subject; and then he must write his history, erect his structure, build his temple, with what skill he may. His design already exists, the events have actually occurred, the past has really been—his task is to approach as near to the design as he possibly can.

Such is the ideal of history, such is that answer to the question with which we began, that I should like to submit to you as the worthiest—the attitude toward history that is

simply a body of material to be studied, understood and described, exactly as the biologist has his material, the chemist his, the mathematician his; except that it is infinitely more complex, more difficult, more fascinating than any.

I would suggest that this view of history is especially suited to the purlieus of a great university, where each field of human knowledge and interest has its devotees, animated by just the same spirit, dominated by just the same ideal. I would suggest that it is especially suited to such a university as this, founded without political, religious or social bias; nurtured in freedom from the control of any party or sect; at no time failing entirely to hold up the standard of human culture for its own sake; at the present time granting to its professors and students perfect liberty to investigate and declare the results of their investigations, to seek and to state the truth as they believe they have discovered it. I would suggest that this attitude toward history should especially appeal to post-graduate students. If an objective, direct, scientific habit of looking at one's work is once attained it is not easily lost. It will remain a solid foundation under the feet during all subsequent floods of reading, writing and controversy; a man or woman who has once done a piece of scientific work that is absolutely impregnable to assaults of criticism on its methods and its material, may afterward safely add to his later work all the insight, all the powers of interpretation, all the excellences of language, that training and the experiences of life may bring to him. First critical study, then a scientific monograph, and then, if the fates allow, a great history.

You may say that to take away from the writing of history ethical and patriotic and political teaching as objects, and to depose it from its position as a form of pure literature, is to give it too humble a rôle to play, that the scholarly historian is made to, lowly and too meek in his claims. But remember the beatitude, "Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth." The earth! What better inheritance could the historian wish? The earth with all its ancient nations, with all its crowding memories, with all the story of the human race that has been lived upon it. The historian may not, like the poet or the philosopher, rise to the heavens or deal with the eternities, but he can well be satisfied to trace the fortunes of humanity, with its joys and sufferings, its conflicts, its failures, its attainments; with all its keen interest,—because it is, after all, our common humanity.

## Possibilities of Seminar Method

### In Modern European History

BY PROFESSOR FRED MORROW FLING, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA.

There is a tradition to the effect that modern European history does not offer a good field for the training of students in the methods of historical investigation. In my judgment, the tradition will not resist close scrutiny. On general principles, one would naturally reach the conclusion that the position could not be sound, for the seminar method is nothing more or less than a method of investigating historical problems, and the only insurmountable obstacle to its application to any part of the historical field would seem to be the lack of material to which the method might be applied. For a series of years, I have conducted seminars in the field of modern European history.

The period to which the seminar work has been confined has been the eighteenth cen-

tury of French history; more specifically the early revolution (1786-1791). By concentrating on this limited period, in the course of a number of years, an excellent working library has been accumulated, consisting of the records of the national assembly, contemporary newspapers, correspondence, *mémoires*, source publications of various French societies, monographs, standard histories, bibliographies and reviews.

That the period chosen for study offers an abundance of topics for investigation is well known to every specialist on the French revolution, for notwithstanding all that has been published, the investigator encounters on every hand soil that is either virgin or only partially worked. The seminar topics are not then simply classroom exercises, but

may have some scientific value. During the years that the seminar has been in existence in the University of Nebraska, the following are some of the subjects that have been investigated: "The Assembly of the Notables"; "The Struggle Between the Monarchy and the Parliaments in the Eighteenth Century"; "The Verification of Credentials in the States General of 1789"; "The Royal Session of June 23, 1789"; "The Fourth of August, 1789"; "The Insurrection of October 5 and 6, 1789," and "The Making of the Constitution of 1791." Much of this work has found its way into masters' theses; some of it has been published.

Two seminars have been conducted each semester, one composed of juniors and

seniors, the other made up almost wholly of graduates. The students in the graduate seminar have passed through the undergraduate seminar, and those in the undergraduate group have all had the elementary training given in the beginner's course in European history. It is not necessary, then, even in the undergraduate seminar, to begin at the beginning; something may be assumed. It may be assumed that the students know what sources are, have at least a speaking acquaintance with historical method, and have gone through the process of applying the method at least once. The chief difference between the paper of the first year and the work of the undergraduate seminar is one of quality; in the seminar the work is more intensive, more critical, and the original French sources are put into the students' hands in place of translations.

At the outset the problem of method in the conduct of the undergraduate seminar was a troublesome one. I began, as most teachers have done, by dividing a topic into sub-topics, assigning one to each student for investigation. When the reports were made, I endeavored to interest the class in the discussion and criticism of a topic about which most of them knew practically nothing. The method was a failure, and was abandoned. The students were in the seminar to be trained; it was evidently necessary so to plan the work that they could get some training out of it. That seemed to mean that all should investigate the same topic, handle the same sources and take part in all the seminar exercises. That was the method finally adopted. A limited topic was selected for investigation, the class already knowing something about it through the general courses. An introductory lecture gave the topic a more detailed setting. The bibliography was then taken up and a critical study of the sources begun. The members of the seminar were required to draw their conclusions, touching the value of the sources, from an examination of the sources themselves and from the reading of critical monographs, when such monographs existed. After this critical work had been formulated and discussed in the seminar, the sources were examined one after the other in relation to the topic to be investigated. Before coming into the class, each student went over the text to be read that day, taking careful notes; in the class, with the texts before us, we tested the correctness of the individual interpretations. The contents of the various sources were compared and the question of independence settled. When all the sources had been read, an outline of the facts was framed, with the citation of evidence. This outline was made the basis of classroom discussions on the establishment of the fact and on historical synthesis. Finally a carefully prepared narrative, in which the text was expected to reflect the value of the evidence, all doubtful questions being fully dis-

cussed in notes, concluded the work of investigation. In the conduct of the seminar we tried not to lose sight of the three essentials that Professor George B. Adams has since emphasized in his excellent paper on "Methods in Historical Seminars" (Am. Hist. Review, April, 1905): (1) Each student went through as nearly as possible all the work of the seminar himself and through all the processes and steps of historical method; (2) in each session of the seminar, every student, as nearly as possible, took part in the work and no one was allowed to fall back into the position of an observer, and (3) in all the work of the seminar there was no let-up of adequate, searching and severe but kindly criticism."

In following through an investigation in this manner, opportunities are offered for training in nearly every problem known to historical method. It may be interesting to refer to a few of the investigations that, begun in the seminar, have yielded some valuable critical results.

The journal of Adrien Duquesnoy has been much used in our work on the national assembly. At the very beginning the question of authorship had to be dealt with. It had been denied that Duquesnoy was the author of the first forty bulletins, in the first volume. That problem was investigated and the results of the investigation published in the "American Historical Review." The unity of authorship for the bulletins was established by comparing them with one another and showing that they were the work of one and the same man. The work was coöperative, each student doing a part outside the class, assimilating the work of the others in the classroom, and finally tabulating all the results and formulating the conclusions. The second step was to determine who the author was. The bulletins were gone over a second time, all material throwing any light on the personality of the writer being gathered up and commented upon. Here again the bulletins were divided up among the members of the class, each member reporting on his consignment, while the others made note of the passage and its significance. Each member of the seminar then organized all the material and stated the results with a citation of proof. It was perfectly clear that Duquesnoy was the author of the bulletins.

Another interesting bit of work was the dating of the writing of Bailly's *Mémoires*. Each week each member of the seminar was required to read a certain number of pages of the work, and to note all statements that bore upon the time of writing. With the text before us, the reports were read in the seminar, and the significance of each reference discussed. When the two volumes had been covered in this way, the termini were fixed, and the problem solved in a very satisfactory manner. Closely related to this exercise was another on the sources made use of by Bailly in the composition of his *Mémoires*. Here the text of

the *Mémoires* was compared page by page with the text of the *procès-verbal* and of contemporary newspapers used by Bailly. The conclusion reached was that Bailly's text contained little of independent value, consisting largely of a literal or condensed reproduction of the contemporary sources. Similar exercises were furnished by the *Mémoires* of Ferrières, of Campan, of Weber and others. An attempt to settle the authorship of the volume published as volume three of the *Mémoires* of Bailly, but not the work of Bailly himself, led to unexpected results. On comparing these daily notes, for such they claimed to be, made by a member of the assembly, with the contemporary newspapers, it soon became evident that we were dealing with a forgery. Extracts from the "Courrier de Provence," the "Point du jour" and the "Révolutions de Paris," had been skilfully pieced together to make a continuous narrative, and the text changed from the third to the first person to give the personal note of the diary. The *Mémoires* of Bailly had been taken as a model, and all the material had been drawn from these three newspapers. And this is a volume that has always been looked upon as a valuable source of information for the insurrection of October, 1789!

Much work has been done at different times in the seminars on the sources of the early numbers of the "Moniteur," for the period from May to November, 1789. A study begun in one of the seminars, and later carried farther in Paris, showed that we possessed at the time in our seminar library all the sources used in the compilation of these numbers of the "Moniteur," with the exception of one newspaper, the "Assemblée nationale," and that when the "Moniteur" contained material not found in our sources, this plus generally, or more exactly, always for all the cases examined, came from the "Assemblée nationale." We utilized this discovery in the seminar work. A comparison of the "Moniteur" with our other sources frequently revealed a large and helpful plus of information upon the topic investigated, and our collection of material was thus enriched by the extracts from one of the most valuable of the contemporary newspapers.

One result of this critical work has been the clear conviction that studies upon the revolution based upon *Mémoires* have little value. Furthermore, that independence cannot be assumed even for contemporary newspapers. More than once we have found in the "Courrier de Provence" matter pilfered from the "Point du jour," while the "Révolutions de Paris, in its turn, pilfers from the "Courrier de Provence."

These examples will illustrate some of the possibilities of the application of the seminar method of critical research to topics taken from the field of modern European history. The two essentials in such work are a teacher who is an investigator, and a good working collection of sources.



# The Indianapolis Meetings

## Of the American Historical Association

The Twenty-sixth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association will be held in Indianapolis, December 27-30, 1910. The North Central History Teachers' Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the Ohio Valley Historical Association will also hold meetings at the same time and place.

### PROGRAM.

Papers are limited to twenty minutes and discussions to ten minutes for each speaker. Those who read papers or take part in the conferences are requested to furnish the Secretary with abstracts of their papers or remarks.

Persons not members of the Associations will be cordially welcomed to the regular sessions.

#### TUESDAY, DECEMBER 27.

12.30 p.m. UNIVERSITY CLUB.—Luncheon and business meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Association.

4.00 p.m. CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Conference on Historical Publication Work in the Ohio Valley.

8.00 p.m. PALM ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Session on Western History. Joint session of the American Historical Association, the Ohio Valley Historical Association, and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Chairman, Benjamin F. Shambaugh, Iowa State University.

"New Light on the Explorations of the Verendrye," Orin G. Libby, University of North Dakota; "The American Intervention in West Florida," Isaac J. Cox, University of Cincinnati; "A Century of Steamboat Navigation on the Ohio," Archer B. Hulbert, Marietta College; "The Beginnings of the Free-Trade Movement in the Canadian Northwest," P. E. Gunn, Winnipeg, Canada; "Early Forts on the Upper Mississippi," Dan E. Clark, State Historical Society of Iowa.

#### WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 28.

9.00 a.m. Meetings of Committees. (At the call of the chairmen.)

9.30 a.m. CALEB MILLS HALL, Shortridge High School, Pennsylvania and North Streets.—Session on the Teaching of History and Civics under the Auspices of the North Central History Teachers' Association. Chairman, James A. Woodburn, Indiana University.

"The Evolution of the Teacher," Lucy M. Salmon, Vassar College; "Is Government Teachable in the Schools?" Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University; "Local History and the City Community as Themes for Civic Teaching," Arthur W. Dunn, Central High School, Philadelphia; "How the Cincinnati Public Schools Are Using Local History," Frank P. Goodwin, Woodward High School, Cincinnati.

10.00 a.m. CLUB ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Meeting of the Executive Council.

2.00 p.m. Conferences.

1. "Ancient History," Palm Room, Claypool Hotel. Chairman, Henry B. Wright, Yale University.—"The Western Campaigns of Sennacherib," Robert W. Rogers, Drew Theological Seminary; "Motive and Character in Polybius," George W. Botsford, Columbia University; "Some Aspects of Roman Imperialism," R. F. Scholz, University of California; "The Monument of Ancyra," William L. Westermann, University of Wisconsin.

2. "Modern European History," Club Room, Claypool Hotel. Chairman, Guy S. Ford, University of Illinois.—General Topic: "European History as a Field for American Historical Work." Discussion by Charles M. Andrews, Yale University; Archibald C. Coolidge, Harvard University; John M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University; James W. Thompson, University of Chicago; Fred M. Fling, University of Nebraska.

3. "American Diplomatic History, with Special Reference to Latin-American Relations." (Place of meeting to be announced.) Chairman, James A. James, Northwestern University. Papers by Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; Joseph H. Sears, New York; James M. Callahan, West Virginia University.

4. "Conference of State and Local Historical Societies," Assembly Room, Claypool Hotel. Chairman, Charles M. Burton, Detroit, Mich.—"The Collection and Preservation of Historical Sources, Manuscript and Printed, as a Function of Historical Societies," Reuben G. Thwaites, State Historical Society of Wisconsin. Discussion on "The Collection of Materials:" (a) "The Collection of Materials Bearing on Religious and Church History," William H. Allison, Colgate University; (b) Publicity as a Means of Adding to Collections. "The Preservation and Care of Collections, with Especial Reference to the Restoration and Treatment of Manuscript," Clarence W. Alvord, University of Illinois, Illinois State Historical Library.

8.00 p.m. CALEB MILLS HALL, Shortridge High School.—Address of welcome, Thomas R. Marshall, Governor of Indiana. Presidential Address, Frederick J. Turner, Harvard University. At the close of the session there will be a reception for ladies and gentlemen at the John Herron Art Institute.

#### THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29.

10.00 a.m. PALM ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—General Session Commemorating the Fiftieth Anniversary of Secession. The North in 1860.

"Cotton and Border Politics, 1850-1860," Worthington C. Ford, Massachusetts Historical Society; "The Decision of the Ohio Valley," Carl R. Fish, University of Wisconsin; "The Dred Scott Decision," Edward S. Corwin, Princeton University; "The Doctrine of Secession and Coercion," Andrew C. McLaughlin, University of Chicago.

2.00 p.m. Conferences.

1. "Medieval History," Club Room, Claypool Hotel. Chairman, Earl W. Dow, University of Michigan.—"Royal Purveyance in Fourteenth Century, England," Chalfant Robinson, Yale University. General Topic: "Profitable Fields of Investigation in Medieval History." Informal discussion opened by Charles H. Haskins, Harvard University.

2. "Conference of Archivists," Palm Room, Claypool Hotel. Chairman, Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania.—"The Work of the International Conference of Archivists and Librarians at Brussels, August 28-31, 1910," A. J. F. Van Laer, Archivist, State Library of New York; "What Material Should Go into the Archives?" Discussion opened by Dunbar Rowland, Department of Archives and History, State of Mississippi, and Gaillard Hunt, Manuscripts Division, Library of Congress. Discussion continued by Victor H. Paltsits, State Historian of New York; Frederic L. Paxson, University of Wisconsin; R. D. W. Connor, North Carolina Historical Commission; Reuben G. Thwaites, Wisconsin State Historical Society; Thomas M. Owen, Department of Archives and History, State of Alabama.

3. "Conference of Teachers of History in Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools." (Place of meeting to be announced.) Chairman, Albert H. Sanford, State Normal School, LaCrosse, Wis.—"The Professional Training of High School History Teachers," Thomas N. Hoover, Teachers' College, Ohio State University. Discussion by F. S. Bogardus, Indiana State Normal School; "The Requirements Fixed by State and Other Authorities for High School Teachers of History," Edgar Dawson, Normal College, New York City. Informal discussion.

8.00 p.m. Session on European History, Claypool Hotel.

"The Efforts of the Danish Kings to Recover the English Crown after the Death of Harthacnut," Laurence M. Larson, University of Illinois; "Some Critical Notes on the Works of S. R. Gardiner," Roland G. Usher, Washington University; "Anglo-Dutch Relations, 1654-1660," Ralph C. H. Catterall, Cornell University; "The Historiography of the French Revolution, with Special Reference to the Work of Aulard," H. Morse Stephens, University of California; "Alexis de Tocqueville and the Republic of 1848," Charles D. Hazen, Smith College.

10.00 p.m. Smoker at the University Club.

#### FRIDAY, DECEMBER 30.

10.00 a.m. PALM ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—General Session Commemorating the Fiftieth Anniversary of Secession. The South in 1860.

"Some Recollections of a Horseback Ride through the South in 1850," James B. Angell, President Emeritus, University of Michigan; "The Lower South in the Election of 1860," David Y. Thomas, University of Arkansas; "North Carolina on the Eve of Secession," William K. Boyd, Trinity College, North Carolina; "The Waning Power of the South in the Northwest, 1850-1860," William E. Dodd, University of Chicago.

12.30 p.m. CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Luncheon, followed by informal speaking. Toastmaster, James A. Woodburn, Indiana University.

4.00 p.m. PALM ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Business Meeting of the American Historical Association.

8.00 p.m. PALM ROOM, CLAYPOOL HOTEL.—Round Table Discussion. General Topic: "The Relation of History to the Newer Sciences of Mankind." Paper by James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University. Discussion led by George L. Burr, Cornell University; Max Farrand, Yale University; George W. Knight, Ohio State University; Frederic L. Paxson, University of Wisconsin; George H. Mead, University of Chicago.

# CONCERNING THE COLLECTION OF "AIDS TO THE VISUALIZATION OF HISTORY."

Editor HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

In December last, while sitting in the parlors of the Waldorf-Astoria, during the conventions of the Historical, Economic and Political Science Associations, the treasurer of the New England History Teachers' Association let drop a remark that there was money in the treasury of that organization. Instantly it was suggested to him that that money could not be better invested than in getting such a collection of "aids to the visualization of history" as had just been brought together for exhibition at the Teachers' College, Columbia University, and in making this collection accessible to teachers of history in New England. Less than a month later the Committee upon Historical Material was appointed and began the work of gathering the maps, charts, wall pictures and models for permanent exhibition. Thanks to the suggestions and assistance of Professor Henry Johnson, who had prepared the exhibition at the Teachers' College, the work of this committee was much simplified and much more was accomplished than could have been possible otherwise. In April the New England history teachers had an opportunity to inspect the collection, and it was then enlarged and the greater part of it placed upon view at the Old Art Museum, Boston, during the Convention of the National Education Association, in July. Meanwhile, the president and executive committee of Simmons College, the Fenway, Boston, had granted rooms for the display of the material, in which rooms, on the second floor of the principal building, it will be accessible to teachers of history.

The chairman of the Committee upon Historical Material of the New England History Teachers' Association has shared with the other members of the committee in the experiences involved in the collecting of material. Many of these experiences have been amusing,—others more or less exasperating. All new ideas have to go through a certain amount of probation and the idea of a permanent collection of historical material accessible readily to teachers is rather new in this country. An active correspondence with many dealers and several museums in the United States and in foreign countries, made sufficient impression to bring a large number of contributions to the collection, enough so that a fairly representative number of historical models, maps, charts and pictures were ready for exhibition at the time of the spring meeting of the Association.

The "aids to the visualization of history" may be roughly divided into maps, charts, pictures, historical models and illustrated books. The sources of these kinds of material are by no means the same. The makers of the famous historical models have nothing to do with the making of any other

kind of historical material. Rarely do you find a map dealer engaged in the manufacturing or sale of historical pictures. While there is naturally more connection between maps and charts, still it is quite true that the best map manufacturers are not necessarily the best makers of charts.

Probably the most common aid to the teaching of history has been maps of various kinds. The maps now in the collection came not only from America, but also from England, France and Germany. Boston, New York, Syracuse, Chicago, San Francisco and many other cities contributed the American made maps through the manufacturers in these cities. The large number of map-makers, in fact, along with the duplication of subjects, is the great difficulty in preparing a practical and serviceable collection. Space can be found nowhere for all the maps of Europe, of the Roman Empire, of England, of the United States, or for maps upon other subjects the demand for which has caused each manufacturer to issue an example of each.

Yet something needs to be done in order to give the teachers a basis of comparison between the productions of various dealers. By the use of spring rollers by which a large number of maps can be placed in a small space to be unrolled for inspection or rolled up again out of the way as occasion requires, and by selecting carefully only one or two of each series, it has been found possible to get together a representative collection, large enough to afford information and guidance to teachers of history.

The comments of teachers at the two special exhibitions given by the Association would make it appear that the outline wall and desk maps, as well as the historical note books and atlases, were fairly familiar to all. The blackboard outline wall maps, on the other hand, were a surprise to many.

The charts that were put upon exhibition were of two main varieties, those bound together on standards with a mixture of historical maps and events arranged to show the relation of each map to the important events,—and those hung separately on the wall which were chronological charts of different kinds. In these strictly chronological charts Germany and England seem to be taking the lead, the former by immense wall charts hung like maps on sticks and spring rollers,—the latter through some inexpensive small ones similar to wall pictures in size and construction.

The historical models from Germany have aroused a great deal of curiosity and interest. Not but what the use of historical models to aid in teaching history is sufficiently understood by a large number of teachers in this country, but there were peculiarities about the Rausch and Hensell models that attracted attention. Their general workmanship, their historical accuracy and representative character, marking the development of civilization period by period,

were the characteristics chiefly spoken of and many and varied were the remarks made as to their value for teaching purposes.

The wall picture is an "aid to visualization" that is comparatively new to this country. Historical pictures are in use in many or in most history class rooms and serve to illustrate the lessons, yet the true wall pictures in a series arranged to bring before the student the manners and customs of peoples in ancient, medieval and modern times, or to make clear the great events do not seem to have taken anywhere near the place in American teaching of history that they have in German, French or English. In Germany, France and England large sets of these pictures are published for use in connection with the study of the history of these countries. The only set issued in the United States has to do with English history, although a large publishing house is now considering the bringing out of a series with subjects taken from American history. Parenthetically it may be said that the Committee upon Historical Material of the New England History Teachers' Association would be glad to receive suggestions as to the subjects to be included in such a set, or as to its usefulness in the teaching of history in this country.

Certain distinct impressions seem to stand out in my mind from the experiences in gathering and exhibiting this collection of material. In the first place, information has been needed by many teachers as to where to find the maps, charts, pictures or models which they wished to add to the equipment of their class rooms. Already a number of letters of inquiry have been received by the committee and information as to dealers, catalogues, etc., sent in reply. Secondly, it has seemed to the committee that it is becoming more and more necessary for the teacher to be in a position to compare maps, wall pictures, charts, etc.

This collection, will of course, afford some opportunity for this study and comparison since such examples of the various kinds of material included in it will be soon accessible to the teachers of history. With this as a base of operations it will be possible for any teacher to study and compare, ferreting out the historical inaccuracies, and examining the material as to its composition. It may be added, and indeed emphasized, that historical inaccuracies especially in maps and charts, are by no means absent, and that there is a great field along this line for patient and scholarly research work in investigation, criticism and comparison of all kinds of this material. It might also be well to devote a certain amount of research to discovering "omissions," with the purpose of suggesting to publishers what maps, wall pictures, charts or models not now procurable, would be utilized by teachers if they were constructed.

ARTHUR IRVING ANDREWS.



# History in the Secondary Schools

## English History: A Series of Exercises in the Use of Sources

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

### The Three Problems in the History of England in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Century.

The history of England during the fourteenth and fifteenth century, the period of the later Angevin kings and of the kings of the house of Lancaster and York, presents to the teacher three topics which he must develop with his classes. The first of the three, the foreign and domestic wars, the wars with Scotland and France, and the War of the Roses is comparatively easy to handle. A brief discussion of the causes of the difficulties, a clear statement of the progress of events, and a summary of the results are all that need in reason be required. The second topic, though far more important, is only too often practically neglected by many teachers or at best dismissed when one or two lessons have been devoted to it—this topic, the economic revolution of the second half of the fourteenth century, we propose to offer as the basis for the series of exercises suggested in this article. The third topic, the political and constitutional development of the kingdom during this period, equally important and equally difficult, we reserve for discussion at some later period.

#### The Study of the Economic Revolution.

A study of the economic revolution of the latter half of the fourteenth century will reveal that the process divided itself into four stages. First there is the gradual commutation of the forced labor of the serf into a fixed money rent paid to the lord of the manor who cultivates his home farm thereafter by means of hired agricultural laborers. Second, this process is temporarily arrested by the ravages of the great pestilence or Black Death. Then follows the attempt on the part of the king and parliament to fix the wages of labor and the price of food and commodities by the series of acts known as the Statutes of Laborers. Finally, we have the growing discontentment of the lower classes which culminates in the so-called Peasant's Revolt of 1381, or Wat Tyler's Rebellion. The immediate result of this uprising seems to have been a tightening of the screws which held down the lower classes; but ultimately the agricultural laborers and the small tenant farmers found themselves in an improved position.

A careful study of the text-book, and of the more extended accounts such as can be found in Cheyney's "Industrial and Social History of England," Trevelyan's, "England in the Age of Wycliffe," Traill's "Social England," and Gasquet's "Great Pestilence," will enable the teacher to bring out these points in presenting the subject to his classes. Experience has taught

us that much further valuable material can be found by studying with the children the sources which are available for this period.

#### How the Sources are to be Used.

The story of the Black Death, of the social, religious and economic agitation which follows it, and of the Peasants' Revolt are interestingly and dramatically told by the chroniclers of the end of the fourteenth century and offer ideal material for the use of the teacher. By this we do not mean that there should be any attempt to reconstruct the history of the period with the class from the stories told by the contemporary writers. Time was when such a process was recommended to teachers by certain theorists who were over sanguine about the value of the use of the sources in the class room. Since then we have learned that such a method is impossible. The wise teacher will insist that his classes familiarize themselves thoroughly with the story first by studying an adequate text-book, and then, and only then will he send them to the various source books.

#### The Sources for the Period 1349 to 1381.

Beginning with the story of the Black Death, the teacher should be sure that the class has mastered the facts in the text-book, that these facts have been supplemented with some of the details to be found in Cheyney's "Social and Industrial History," in Trevelyan's "England in the Age of Wycliffe," in Gasquet's "The Great Pestilence," and in Jessop's "Essays on the Black Death in East Anglia." Then the class is ready to read the accounts which are given in such source books as Cheyney's Readings, No. 146; Kendall's Source Book, No. 33, Colby's Selections, No. 46, and in Frazer's "English History Illustrated from Original Sources, 1307-1399," No. 45. From such readings, the boys and girls invariably come away with impressions far more vivid and far more permanent than any which they can get from the text-book. When one account after another agrees in telling of the suddenness of the attack of the plague, of the vast numbers who died from its ravages, of the economic desolation which it left in its tracks, the pupils learn to appreciate the statements made by the author of their text-book. The text-book furnishes the basis of their knowledge, the sources supply the confirmatory details.

The next step is to take up with the class the various Statutes of Laborers published in the source books, such as Adams and Stevens' Select Documents, No. 69; University of Pennsylvania Reprints, II, No. 5; and Frazer's English History, etc., No. 46. Here the problem before the class is different. Since we are dealing with laws

and proclamations, the class need only be asked to pick out of the statutes the significant phrases, to study the purpose of the laws and to determine their probable effect upon the history of the country. These things, it is true, have already been done in large part for the class by the text-book and the teacher, but when the children are forced to do it a second time for themselves, they are engaged in an exercise as valuable as that performed in the physics or chemistry laboratory.

Our third exercise deals with the story of the Peasants' Revolt. Here we begin by reading with the class the supposed sermon of John Bull given in Froissart's Chronicle (see Cheyney's Readings, No. 150). The sermon is most interesting because it gives us in brief, homely language the grievances of the lower classes. Phrases like "That there be no more villeins nor gentlemen," "we be all came from one father and one mother, Adam and Eve," "they are clothed in velvet, we be vested with poor cloth," "they dwell in fair houses and we have the pain and travail, rain and wind in the fields," speak for themselves, and even the dullest boy or girl can understand their meaning.

Finally, there is the exercise in the interpretation of the accounts of the Peasants' Revolt. Here we are dealing with the most difficult kind of sources. Teachers who desire to understand the difficulty fully can do no better than to read the two articles of Kriehn on the Sources of the Peasants' Revolt which appeared in the "American Historical Review" for 1902. In the first place, owing to the fact that the movement was widespread and often sporadic, the accounts vary in details. In the second place, the descriptions are written by men who are forced to depend on hearsay and not upon personal knowledge. Again, the chroniclers are invariably hostile to the lower classes and consequently their accounts are colored by their prejudices. Finally the accounts do not agree with each other and consequently unless the teacher handles the situation skillfully, the class is apt to come away from the exercises puzzled and perplexed by its difficulties. Nevertheless, the experiment is worth the trial, for this at least the class will learn—that the written page is by no means always to be depended upon; that men who write books often err either through lack of knowledge or through conscious or unconscious prejudice; that in such cases it is the function of the careful student to weigh conflicting evidence and determine for himself how much of truth is to be gathered from these conflicting and confusing statements.

## American History: Ratification of the Constitution

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

### The Three Epochs in the Critical Period.

The critical period in the history of the United States, 1783 to 1789, divides itself naturally into three epochs. The first falls within the four years from 1783 to 1787, after the conclusion of the treaty of peace with England up to the time when the Constitutional Convention began its sessions in Philadelphia. The second is included in the four months during which the convention was in session. The third comprises the seven or eight months during which the Constitution was before the country for ratification.

The teacher's task consists, therefore, in bringing out with his classes the basic facts which characterize each of these three epochs. He must first develop the history of the United States under the Articles of Confederation, showing how the articles operated, where they were effective and where ineffectual. Next he must discuss the history of the convention, and finally he must make clear what causes were operative in bringing the various States to accept the new Constitution.

Last year (December, 1909) we developed, as fully as is feasible in one of these articles, what we consider to be the best method of dealing with the Constitutional Convention. This month we propose to discuss the method of teaching the history of constitutional ratification. At some future date we may take up the third of the topics.

### Why We Study the Ratification of the Constitution in Detail.

Many teachers pass over the story of the ratification of the Constitution in a very perfunctory way. They see in it nothing particularly valuable or instructive. The Constitution has been framed, they say, let us pass as quickly as possible to the history of the United States under the new instrument of government. This is a mistake. In the discussions which took place in the ratification conventions lie the germs of nearly all the political theories which have governed the actions of statesmen and politicians from that day to this. During those six or seven months political feeling ran high, and theories of government were expounded which fixed for many decades the basis for the platforms of the various political parties. No sooner was the work of the convention completed than two parties sprang into existence—the Federalists, those who defended the new instrument, and the Anti-Federalists, those who attacked the work of the convention because they declared it took from the individual States too much of their independence, and because they feared that under the Constitution the people would lose many of the

rights and privileges for which they had fought in the Revolution.

In these discussions lie the germs of all the arguments with which the class will become familiar as they study the later history of the controversy over the meaning of the Constitution. The boy or girl who would understand perfectly the principles for which Jefferson and Madison contended in 1798, when they wrote the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions, who would comprehend the arguments in the writings of Calhoun and Hayne, of the contentions of South Carolina when it passed the Nullification ordinance, and of the eleven Southern States when they adopted their Secession ordinances, must first become familiar with the arguments advanced by Patrick Henry and Richard Henry Lee and George Clinton and by scores of others, honest men, all of them, who opposed the ratification of the Constitution. On the other hand, Marshall and Webster and Clay and Lincoln and many men of a later day, all found the basis for their arguments in favor of a strongly centralized government in the papers of Hamilton and Jay and Washington who fought sturdily for the adoption of the Constitution. These arguments should be the center of all class-room discussion. The mere history of the ratification without this is a purposeless routine exercise in names and dates, and has no justification. At least two or three lessons—unless time is pressing even more—can profitably be devoted to these discussions.

### Method of Presenting the Lessons.

In presenting these lessons, the teacher should proceed in the following order: First, he should insist that the class become familiar with the attitude of the men of the convention when they sent the new Constitution to Congress. Next he should point out the attitude of indifference, almost of hostility, with which Congress sent the instrument to the States for ratification. The first group of five States, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia and Connecticut, ratified the Constitution almost without opposition. This group can, therefore, be passed over hurriedly. Before the conventions met in the other States, however, opposition to the Constitution had gathered greater and greater strength, and in the ratification conventions the battle of words raged most fiercely. It is here that the opportunity for studying the writings and speeches of those in favor and those in opposition can best be taken up with the class. No pupil should pass beyond this period without some knowledge of the "Federalist" and of the speeches and pamphlets of Patrick Henry and Richard Henry Lee. The teacher will find, if he tries the experiment, that the class will

even consent to grapple with the actual documents. Extracts from these papers may with profit be set to the various members of the class for study and for interpretation. Debates and discussions based on these extracts often lead to most valuable results, and such debates are earnestly recommended. In such discussions the following points ought to be developed: The basis of the opposition lay largely in the contention (1) that the Congress under the new Constitution would overawe the States; (2) that the President would prove to be a despot; (3) that the courts would destroy the liberty of the States and of the individual citizens; (4) that there were no specific guarantees in the Constitution which protected the rights and privileges of the individual (Bill of Rights). On the other hand, those in favor of the ratification contended (1) the powers of Congress were no greater than were necessary to insure the peace and prosperity of the nation—experience had shown this; (2) that the office of President and the powers of the courts were sufficiently circumscribed to prevent any of the dangers which the Anti-Federalists pretended to be afraid of; (3) that there was no need for specific guarantees of the rights and privileges of the States and of the individual citizens, these things were inherent in the whole life of the nation.

For several months this discussion raged with unabated fury, but in the end six more States, Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Virginia and New York, ratified the Constitution. In five of these States, at least, the ratification conventions recommended amendments, which were intended to safeguard the rights of the States and of individual citizens. These recommendations were later embodied in the first ten amendments, the so-called Bill of Rights of the Constitution.

### The Last Two States—The Interest in Their Story.

Two States, North Carolina and Rhode Island, in April, 1789, when the first President was inaugurated, still remained outside the Union. The study of the history of ratification in these States will prove a most interesting exercise. Here the class may profitably be set to solve the question: What would have happened if they had steadily refused to accept the new Constitution? and having accepted it, Did they lose—did all the States lose—their right of withdrawal from the Union? If the class happens to be using Chaninng's textbook, the following quotation ought to be a fruitful source of discussion: "As an historical fact—entirely apart from legal and theoretical considerations—it is undoubted-



ly true that this [that the State could withdraw from the new Union by simply holding another convention and repealing the ratifying ordinance] was the view of the voters whose consent gave the Constitution its validity; . . . if they had supposed for an instant that once in the Union withdrawal would be impossible it is probable that nine States would never have ratified the Constitution."—Channing, p. 271.

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## Ancient History: An Athenian Assembly

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

At first sight the Peloponnesian War does not seem to offer the teacher the same opportunity for playing upon the imagination and stirring the emotions as is presented by the two great periods which immediately precede it. On the contrary, it seems rather to deaden the interest which has been aroused by the contemplation of the glorious achievements of men like Themistocles, Cimon, and Pericles. The prolix accounts which characterize the older text-books—mere abridgments of the original narrative of Thucydides—have given way in the more recent books to the briefest possible notices of some of the main features of the struggle. Apparently these writers share the feeling of many teachers that the ups and downs of this strife for leadership offer little of real worth or interest to the student, and are, therefore, to be hurried over with little if any comment.

Notwithstanding the difficulties attending the presentation of a struggle of this character, there are many important lessons to be drawn from a study of the events of the period, especially if the war be treated not so much from the narrative as from the biographical point of view. The struggle in its inception centers about Pericles, who, although recognizing that a break with Sparta is inevitable, seeks by every means in his power to postpone the evil day. He directs the war for the first few years, but soon falls a victim to the plague which follows his efforts to safeguard the people within the walls. He is succeeded by such blatant demagogues as Hyperbolus and Cleon, men who, denied the advantages of social position, nevertheless display a political ability of no mean order, molding and shaping the opinions of the most intelligent people of their time. Cleon becomes the immediate successor of Pericles, and is largely responsible for the conduct of Athenian affairs from 427 to 421 B. C., persuading his fellow-citizens to wreak a bloody vengeance on the Mityleneans, and above all fighting every effort to bring the war to a close. After the blockade of the Spartans on the island of Sphacteria, Cleon is successful in persuading his countrymen to refuse the Spartan overtures for peace—conditions far more advantageous than they are able to secure at any later period. It is his boastfulness that prompts the Athenians to intrust to

him the task of capturing these same four hundred warriors. Fortune smiles upon him in this crisis, and his success serves to strengthen his hold on the people and to commit them more completely to his plans and policy. This same assurance proves his undoing a little later when he is intrusted with the more difficult task of checking the ruinous inroads of Brasidas upon the loyalty of the Athenian outposts in Chalcidice. These two men, both representing the aggressive war parties in their respective states, fall on the famous battlefield of Amphipolis. Then Nicias and the peace party triumph at Athens, and the former negotiates the treaty which bears his name.

Now appears Alcibiades with the proposal of an alliance with Argos, and, nothing daunted by its failure, champions the expedition to Sicily. He captures the sensation-loving Athenians by his clever poses and the charm of his eloquence. So carried away are they by their enthusiasm that the arguments of the conservative Nicias fall on unheeding ears. Nevertheless they commit the expedition partly to his keeping, adding still another type of Athenian, Lamachus. The fortunes of the expedition, which are so closely linked with the shifty Alcibiades, need not be followed here. The human element is nowhere more prominent than at this crisis. Nor is it by any means lacking in the period which follows, when the fortunes of Athens and Sparta lie so largely in the hands of Alcibiades and Lysander with Persia holding the balance of power.

Enough has been said to show that the period is not lacking in interest, but pulsates with life and movement. This suggests the real point of attack for the teacher, as nothing appeals to the child so much as that which teems with life and human interest. It is not difficult to picture the men of the period. They are so much like the product of our own democracy that we can sympathize with their every project and feel their eloquence as their contemporaries felt it.

It was with the thought of combining these two elements, the human interest in the war and the character and influence of the Athenian democracy, that the author tried the experiment which he is about to describe. It is simply one of the many attempts which are constantly being made

to stimulate that self-activity which is the real end and aim of all good teaching. The experiment makes little claim to originality. In fact, the idea was suggested by two very interesting experiments in history teaching which came to the writer's notice about three years ago. In one case, the entire school was organized on the model of the government of republican Rome with its senate and assemblies, and the students proceeded to transact business and elect officers as in the days of Pompey and Caesar. In the other, a class was organized into a club or society with regular officers, and took up each day's lessons as any organization would deal with important items of business. The plan, in short, was to transform the classes in Greek history into miniature Athenian assemblies during the time ordinarily devoted to the Peloponnesian War.

Two or three students from each of the three classes in which the experiment was tried were selected to look up the Athenian Assembly as a special topic, noting its officers and the various rules which governed its meetings. The teacher gave them as references Tucker's "Life in Ancient Athens," Gulick's "Life of the Ancient Greeks," Gow's "Companion to School Classics," and Harper's and Seyffert's Classical Dictionaries. They were instructed to be especially well informed on two points: first, the officers needed, their number, and precise duties; and second, the rules which governed the transaction of business. When they had made their report, the teacher sought to make these points as clear as possible, but to avoid mistakes, and to secure the greatest effectiveness from the very beginning, the rules were drawn off on the blackboard. After making due allowance for modern conditions, they appeared as follows:

1. The following shall constitute the regular order of business: (1) solemn curse on traitors, pronounced by the herald; (2) declaration by the chairman (*epistateis*) that the gods are propitious; (3) reading of the day's resolutions by the herald; (4) inquiry by the chairman as to whether the assembly wishes to discuss the resolutions, or to put them immediately to a vote; (5) discussion of the measures; (6) voting on the measures; (7) adjournment.

2. In case the assembly decides to discuss the measures, the chairman shall ask,

"Who wishes to speak?" All persons desirous of participating in the debate shall indicate the same by the show of hands. The herald shall note their names, and the chairman shall indicate the order in which they shall speak.

3. The presiding officer may cut short a speaker's remarks, and any citizen may interrupt a speaker to ask a question. In addition to the officers named in the rules, one member of each class was chosen to preserve order, serving in the place of the regular *tozotai*.

The first recitation was spent in carefully explaining the rules and in the election of the necessary officers. As the classes were just entering upon their second year of academic work, many were not familiar with the simplest rules of parliamentary procedure, and some time was therefore consumed in instructing them how to address the chair and how to put motions. Even to the last many persisted in indicating by the hand their desire to ask a question, as they had become accustomed to do when in charge of the instructor. The balloting for chairman or *epistateis*, resulted in the election of the best student in each class as presiding officer. The offices of herald and sergeant-at-arms were bestowed, in at least two cases, upon students who were better known for their pleasing address than for their intellectuality.

After the necessary business connected with organization had been transacted, the teacher explained to the classes that they were thenceforth to imagine themselves Athenian citizens, and an imaginary committee of the council or *boule* (represented in the person of the instructor) would submit to them from day to day resolutions of a similar character to those which came before the original Assembly during the war. They were to remember that the decisions of the Assembly during this period were of such moment that they affected the destinies of a considerable part of the Greek world, for they had only to bear in mind the fact that Athens was the leading city of Greece at the time and ruled over a vast empire. To make their deliberations still more vivid, they were to speak in the first person, and to address and speak of their fellows as "Citizen Smith" or "Citizen Brown."

The following resolutions were submitted to the assembly: (1) that Athens was justified in her dealings with Coreyra and Potidæa; (2) that Athens is prepared for war; (3) that the plans of Pericles for the conduct of the war deserve the support of every citizen; (4) that the Mityleneans deserve the severest punishment; (5) that the proper time to make peace with Sparta was after the blockade of the Spartans on Sphacteria; (6) that Cleon's policy deserves the support of every Athenian; (7) that the Peace of Nicias was advantageous to Athens; (8) that Athens was justified in

undertaking the Sicilian expedition; (9) that the Sicilian expedition has disclosed serious defects in the conduct of the affairs of Athens; (10) that Athens' only hope of success depends upon changing the government and making an alliance with Persia; (11) that Athens shall accept the terms offered by Lysander.

From the very outset the classes entered most heartily into the spirit of the exercise. The herald opened the meetings with the formula, "Cursed be anyone who betrays Athens by thought, word, or deed." After each speech an opportunity was given the Assembly to question the speaker, care being exercised that any objection to his remarks should be couched in the form of a question. This privilege, however, developed a tendency to confine the debate to a comparatively small number, and it was therefore decided that no member should be permitted to put more than two questions to each speaker. It was found that not more than two resolutions on the average could be discussed during the recitation period of forty-five minutes. Each of these resolutions was supposed to be discussed at some crisis in the war. For example, the one which criticized the conduct of the Sicilian expedition was supposed to have been introduced after the news had reached Athens of its failure. To facilitate the acquisition of the facts a topical outline of the war, based on the biographical method of presentation, which has already been described, was placed in the hands of each student, with references to the text-book. The school and city library authorities co-operated with the teacher in placing at the disposal of the classes the best books on the subject. At no other time throughout the course were so many books consulted and used so intelligently.

Ten or twelve recitations were devoted to the war, but no effort was made to complete the work in any given time, nor carefully to map out the work of each recitation. All members of the class understood that they would take up the work where they left it at the previous recitation and carry it as far as the time permitted. The instructor saw to it that they had enough resolutions assigned to keep them occupied.

The question naturally arises as to whether this exercise did not serve as a cloak for the lazy and indifferent. In general this query can be answered in the negative. Those students who were grossly indifferent or lazy did not materially mend their ways. Many who were apparently indifferent up to this time became wide awake and intensely active as the discussion progressed. As large a proportion of the class contributed to each recitation as when under the more immediate control of the teacher. The greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout, and the exercise served to sustain and heighten the interest aroused by the study of the earlier periods.

At the conclusion of this work a test was given, calling, among other things, for a summary of some of the arguments for or against some of the questions connected with the war—e.g., making peace with Sparta after the Spartans were blockaded on Sphacteria, undertaking the Sicilian expedition, etc. The pupils were allowed to select whichever side they chose, but were not asked to use the first person in their answers. Many had been so impressed by the reality of these events that in some cases they submitted speeches which would have done justice to a Pericles or an Alcibiades. The following specimens which were taken from the same paper illustrate this tendency:

"We ought not to make peace after the blockade at Sphacteria. Nothing would be gained by this, for although we have defeated the Spartans thus far, they are not yet humbled. The truce has been broken and there is no sense in agreeing to accept terms which although perhaps slightly to our advantage would not decide the leadership of Athens. Athens and Sparta are rival cities, and one or the other must be subjected. Shall we not therefore follow up our victories while Sparta is somewhat disheartened? Thus far we have gained no decisive victory. A truce would only be broken and the victories we have gained are not great enough for us to demand anything we wish from Sparta, or in fact anything that will do us any good. Let us continue the war."

"Athenian citizens, do not allow yourselves to be dazzled by the prospect of gaining a new province, thus making way for an empire in the west. Will you send out all our army, all our navy for the sake of a new empire, when our own city needs to be protected? Do you not think that the minute our army and navy depart, the Spartans will seize the opportunity of marching against the almost defenceless city? You say we will still have men. Yes, but look at the great host the Spartans will be able to send against us. We have men but our best men will be absent. What is an army without a leader? What good will a new empire do us, even if we should establish it, when our own city is destroyed, as it most probably will be?"

"Athenian citizens, we ought to ally ourselves with Persia. There is nothing else left for us to do. You say perhaps that the fact that Alcibiades is the one who proposes this ought to condemn it. Even if Alcibiades is not a true patriot, he will never dare turn traitor to Athens again. He knows that we will watch him carefully. He has nothing to gain by turning traitor. He has nowhere to flee. The Spartans have turned him out, the Persians distrust him. We will have time to recover from our losses if Persia aids us. It will tide us over this defeat. An alliance with Persia does not necessarily mean subjection to Persia. We need money. Persia has offered us money. Why not accept?"



# History in the Elementary School

## Construction Work in the Teaching of History — III. Construction of Models

BY LIDA LEE TALL, SUPERVISOR OF GRAMMAR GRADES, BALTIMORE COUNTY, MARYLAND.

In a previous article we discussed the building of Fort Crèvecoeur by a class of students that had been studying La Salle's explorations for the French in America. Another fort that a class of children worked out with great success was Daniel Boone's on the present site of Boonesboro; it seems to be a particularly fortunate choice for fourth grade children. But I shall leave the construction of forts this month and take up the construction of some models that helped to make vivid Grecian life, and of some others that helped us to live in imagination the life of the English colonists of America. The grade is the sixth; the topics in history to be studied in this particular year are the struggles for dominion between contrasted civilizations: 1. Greece versus Persia, 2. Rome versus Carthage, 3. The Franks versus the Moors, 4. England versus France, with special attention to the struggle for supremacy upon the American field that closed with the French and Indian war.

We had begun our study of Greece and had worked with great interest upon the following topics:—

1. Life in early Greece.
2. Life in Sparta.
3. Life in Athens.
4. The Greek colonies; contact with Persia.
5. Life in Persia.
6. The first and second Persian expeditions.
7. The Great Persian invasion.

Up to this point pictures had helped to orient us in that wonderful past; and some of the girls, more than anxious to work out details, had made a chlamys and an himation, had dressed dolls in Greek costumes, and had dressed themselves in costume for a Greek drama that was written by the class during the English periods. But not until we came to the account of Xerxes' invasion were we really "set on fire" with enthusiasm. Read Herodotus' account of the incident to your class; then read as a corrective one from either Bury's or Abbott's History of Greece. Of the elementary histories for the grades we find Eva March Tappan's *The Story of the Greek People* a book that children enjoy and re-read.

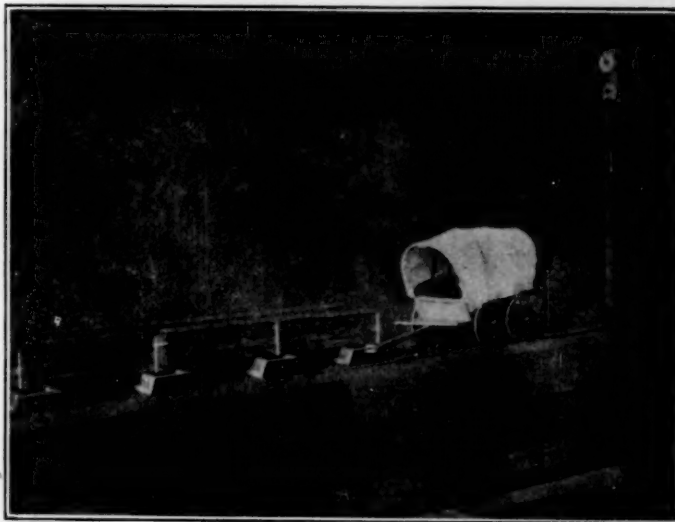
The following is quoted from Bury, who closely follows Herodotus, but also comments upon the authenticity of his statements:—

It was clear that the expedition must consist of a joint attack by sea and land. Preparations were begun by the difficult enterprise of digging a canal (about a mile and a half long) across the isthmus of Mt. Athos. . . .

Xerxes came down from Susa to Sardis in the autumn. . . . Xerxes spent the winter at Sardis. . . . It is impossible to suppose that the whole army wintered in Sardis with the king; it is probable that the place of mustering was at the Hellespont across which two bridges had been constructed, in the neighborhood of Sestos and Abydos, by Phoenician and Egyptian engineers. But the strength of these bridges was not sufficient and a tempest destroyed them. The wrath of Xerxes at this catastrophe was violent. He not only beheaded the engineers, but commanded that 300 lashes should be inflicted on the waters of the Hellespont. Those who carried out this strange order addressed the sea as they scourged it in these words: "O bitter water, our lord lays this punishment upon thee, for having done him wrong, who never did wrong to thee. King Xerxes will cross thee, whether thou wilt or not. Just is it that no man sacrifices to thee, for thou art a treacherous and briny river." These words are blamed by Herodotus as "un-Greek and impious." The reconstruction of the bridges was entrusted to new engineers. Two lines of ships were moored across the strait by anchors at prow and stern. The line nearer to the Propontis consisted of 360, the other of 314, triremes and pen-

teconters mixed. Over each of these lines of ships six huge cables—two of flax, four of papyrus—were stretched; and in three places gaps were left between the ships and under the cables for small trading craft to pass between the Euxine and the Aegean. Planks were laid across the cables and kept in their places by a second layer of cables above. On this foundation a road was made with wood and earth, and at each side palisades were set, high enough to prevent the animals which passed over from seeing the water. On a marble throne erected on the shore Xerxes is said to have witnessed the passage of his army, which began at the first moment of sunrise. The troops crossed under the lash, and the crossing was accomplished in two days. But when the size of the Persian host was magnified, in later years, to the impossible figure of five millions, the story was that the crossing of the Hellespont required seven days and seven nights—the favorite number of fiction—without a moment's pause.

The army was joined by the fleet at Doriscus in Thrace. Fleet and army were henceforward ordered to act together. In the plain of Doriscus Xerxes reviewed and numbered his forces. "What nation of Asia," asks Herodotus, "did not Xerxes lead against Hellas?" He enumerates forty-six peoples, with a picturesque description of their array. The Persians themselves, who were under the command of Otanes, wore coats of mail and trousers; they had



PONTOON BRIDGE AND CONESTOGA WAGON.

wicker shields, large bows, and short spears. The Medes, Cissians, and Hyrcanians were attired in the same way. Then there were Assyrians with brazen helmets, linen cuirasses, clubs, lances, and short swords; Bactrians with cane bows; trowsered Sacae with pointed hats, and carrying axes; Indians clad in cotton, Caspians in goat-skin; Sarangians wearing dyed garments and high boots; Ethiopians clad in lion skins or leopard skins and armed with arrows whose stone points transport us to a primitive age; Sagartians with dagger and lasso; Thraceans with foxskin caps; Colchians with cowskin shields. . . . The picked body of 10,000 troops, called the Immortals, had the privilege of traveling comfortably with their wives and baggage; but this was an exceptional privilege, and it cannot be supposed that the mass of the troops were accompanied by servants.

The photograph shows detail of the pontoon bridge as it was constructed by two members of the class. This particular bridge was made of wood, but several of the best models brought in were skilfully shaped out of cardboard.

That class was intensely interested also in life in the English colonies in America. We had studied in detail, Maryland life, Virginia life, New England life, and New York life, and as a summary and a contrast of life then and now had read, in McMaster's *School History of the United*

*States*, Chapter IX, Life in the Colonies in 1763, and Chapter XIV, Our Country in 1790. The following is quoted from Chapter XIV, and was the inspiration for the model of the stage coach appearing in the photograph.

Six Days from Boston to New York.—Our country was small when Washington was president. The people lived on the seaboard. The towns and cities were not actually very far apart; but the means of travel were so poor, the time consumed in going even fifty miles was so great, that the country was practically immense in extent. Now we step into a beautifully fitted car, heated by steam, lighted by electricity, richly carpeted and provided with most comfortable seats and beds, and are whirled across the continent from Philadelphia to San Francisco in less time than it took Washington to go from New York to Boston.

If you had lived in 1791 and started, say, from Boston, to go to Philadelphia to see the president and the great city where independence had been declared, you would very likely have begun by making your will, and bidding good-by to your friends. You would then have gone down to the office of the proprietor of the stage-coach, and secured a seat to New York. As the coach left but twice a week, you would have waited till the day came and would then have presented yourself, at three o'clock in the morning, at the tavern whence the coach started.

The stagecoach was little better than a huge covered box mounted on springs. It had neither glass windows, nor door, nor steps, nor closed sides. The roof was upheld by ten posts which rose from the body of the vehicle, and the body was commonly breast-high. From the top were hung curtains of leather, to be rolled up when the day was fine, and let down and buttoned when it was rainy and cold. Within were four seats. Without was the baggage. Fourteen pounds of baggage were allowed to be carried free by each passenger. But if your portmanteau or your brass-nail-studded hair trunk weighed more, you would have paid for it at the rate per mile that you paid for yourself. Under no circumstances, however, would you be permitted to take on the journey more than 150 pounds. When the baggage had all been weighed and strapped on the coach, when the horses had been attached, and the waybill, containing the names of the passengers, made out, the passengers would clamber to their seats through the front of the stage and sit down with their faces toward the driver's seat.

One pair of horses usually dragged the coach eighteen miles, when a fresh pair would be attached, and if all went well, you would be put down about ten at night at some wayside inn or tavern after a journey of forty miles. Cramped and weary, you would eat a frugal supper and hurry off to bed with a notice from the landlord to be ready to start at three the next morning. Then, no matter if it rained or snowed, you would be forced to make ready by the dim light of a horn lantern, unknown now, for another ride of eighteen hours.

If no mishaps occurred, if the coach was not upset by the ruts, if storm or flood did not delay you at Springfield, where the road met the Connecticut, or at Stratford, where it met the Housatonic, each of which had to be crossed on clumsy flatboats, the stage would roll into New York at the end of the sixth day.

Besides the stage coach, we found the Conestoga wagon playing an important part in colonial transportation, particularly in Pennsylvania. The wagon in the picture was constructed after the reading of the chapters in Brigham's *From Trail to Railway*, which tells the story of transportation and of the growth of the West. The following is quoted from Brigham:

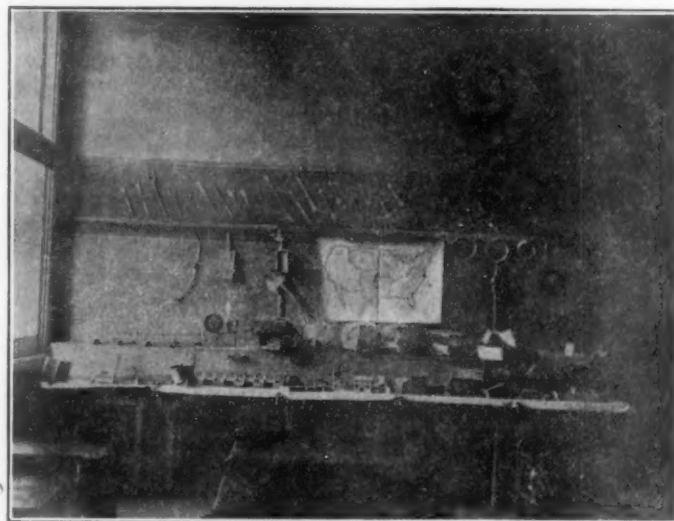
An English traveler went over the Lancaster pike in 1796 and found it worthy of praise. He said that it was paved with stone, covered with gravel, and could be traversed in any season of the year. About one mile east of the public square in Lancaster a fine old arched bridge of stone carries the turnpike across Conestoga creek, a stream flowing southward into the Susquehanna. It takes its name, which has become famous in American history, from a small tribe of Indians who lived on its borders. The early inhabitants made the water deeper by building dams with locks, and sailed their boats with loads of produce down to the Susquehanna. In the common phrase of that time, they spoke of it as the "Conestoga navigation."

But the most interesting thing to which the name Conestoga was given was a wagon that was invented in this region. It was

made very large and strong, to carry freight, and was drawn by four, seven, or even a dozen horses. Hundreds of these wagons were to be seen on the Lancaster pike and on the other great roads of that time. They were built, as freight cars are now, to carry heavy loads long distances in safety.

These wagons were unusually long, and the boxes curved upwards at the ends, so that inside and out they were shaped somewhat like a canoe. The advantage of this was that the loads did not slide, but rode steadily when the wagons went up and down steep hills. The wheels were big and had wide tires, so that the heavy loads would not cut the roads. The story is told that one of these wagons with its load of tobacco weighed more than thirteen thousand pounds, or almost seven tons.

They were painted red and blue, and were covered with a canopy of cloth, so that they looked like the "prairie schooners" which in later days were the emigrant wagons of the western plains. Each wagon had a tool box fastened at the side, and a tar bucket and a water pail hung beneath. The horses were well fed, well matched and strong, with good harnesses and many jingling bells. The driv-



ers were rough-and-ready men, who snapped their whips in the daytime, told stories in the evening, and slept at night on little mattresses of their own in front of the barroom fire.

Hundreds of these wagons were going and coming on the roads in the days when people were not dreaming of freight trains, and no doubt the Conestoga seemed as important then as the chief freight lines now appear to us. In the French and Indian wars, when there was great need of wagons to carry Braddock's stores, Benjamin Franklin was asked to get some of these famous conveyances. He succeeded, for many were to be found in this part of Pennsylvania, and he sent on more than one hundred and fifty of them. He nearly lost his fortune in consequence, for he told the farmers he would see that they were paid if the wagons and horses were not returned. It cost the old patriot twenty thousand pounds, but fortunately the government afterwards paid the money back to him. Not long ago the writer saw one of these wagons, with a boat-shaped box, but without a canopy, in use on a farm near Lancaster.

### FRONTISPIECE.

The broadside reproduced upon the cover page this month is one of several circulated in Philadelphia and vicinity in the fall of 1773. When news of the departure of the tea ships reached Philadelphia, "An Address to the Tea Commissioners" was first issued. This was followed by a set of strong resolutions, adopted in a mass meeting on October 18, which were endorsed and adopted by public meetings in other parts of the country. Broadside were then issued to intimidate pilots and prevent the tea ship reaching Philadelphia harbor. It arrived within sight of the city without a pilot, but the captain was induced to return without attempting to land the tea.



# Bibliography of History and Civics

Edited by a Committee of the North Central History Teachers' Association Composed of Wayland J. Chase, The University of Wisconsin, Chairman; Karl F. Geiser, Oberlin College; Laurence M. Larson, The University of Illinois; Clarence Perkins, Ohio State University. Assisted by Victoria A. Adams, Calumet High School, Chicago; Carl E. Pray, State Normal School, Milwaukee; William L. Westermann, The University of Wisconsin.

ANDREWS, C. M., GAMBRILL, J. M. and TALL, L. T. A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries. New York, Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. xiv + 224. 60 cents.

Surely a committee on yearly bibliography welcomed this work designed to cover the publications of many years. The declared purpose of the collaborators, who were acting as a committee of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, is to treat every phase of the subject so far as it bears on the interests of the teacher of history. The table of contents shows how comprehensively that has been carried out: I. The Study and Teaching of History and Historical Aids. II. World Histories. III. Ancient History. IV. European History. V. English History. VI. American History. VII. Histories of Countries (not otherwise included). VIII. Historical Stories for the Elementary School. IX. Stories for Children Preparatory to History. Textbooks as such are not included. The comment on many of the books listed is more than descriptive, as it contains in many instances a critical estimate of the book's value. As the committee had the aid of several of the leading American scholars in history, this feature is of so great worth and helpfulness that one wishes all the titles had been thus appraised. The book's need of an index is great, especially since paragraphs apparently treating of only one title contain references to several others besides. Doubtless a second edition will supply this lack despite which the bibliography is of unique value and should be in every school library. Wayland J. Chase.

CANNON, HENRY LEWIN. Reading References for English History. Boston, Ginn & Co. Pp. xv, 559. \$2.50.

Prof. Cannon's work is intended to afford much-needed assistance and relief to the teacher of English history who believes in the use of collateral reading. The work is in two parts; a bibliography and a list of topical references. The bibliography comprises more than two thousand titles chosen with respect to evident use or apparent usefulness. In the list the author has included a number of articles in historical reviews or other periodicals.

Under "Topics and References," Prof. Cannon divides the field on a chronological basis into eighty-seven sections and gives a list of sources and readings from modern authors for each section. Specific page references are given in almost every instance and frequently the particular topic is indicated. The references are in two groups: the first to the more general and popular works, the second to writings of a more special or advanced character. Teachers in secondary schools will find Group I particularly useful, though much material in Group II will also be found valuable. In doing this work, Prof. Cannon has earned the gratitude of all teachers of English history. It seems to the reviewer, however, that the lists are too inclusive; it seems hardly advisable to include materials of high school as well as of university grade in one volume.

Laurence M. Larson.

LODGE, ELEANOR C. The End of the Middle Age. 1273-1473, with an Introduction by R. Lodge. New York, The Macmillan Company, Pp. xxii, 286. \$9.00.

This book is the third volume of a series entitled "Six Ages of European History" edited by A. H. Johnson, M.A., and designed for the higher forms of English schools. In this volume the author gives an account of the history of Germany and the Empire, Italy, France, and the Papacy, each by periods treated usually in separate chapters, with additional chapters at the end dealing with the Baltic States, and the Greek Empire and the Ottoman Turks. This adoption of the more modern national divisions tends to break the unity of the narrative and to make some of the chapters rather confused and disjointed, especially those on Italy. It may be questioned whether the student needs to master all the details of the dreary story of wars which had no great results. The chapters dealing with France, Germany, the papal schism, and the great councils are in the main well-organized and clear. There are good characterizations of prominent figures and excellent paragraphs devoted to brief interpretations of events. A great defect of the book is its excessive emphasis on political history. For example, one learns from the introduction that "the fifteenth century is pre-eminently the period which is known as the Renaissance," yet

that movement is hardly mentioned in the text. Parts of the book will, however, be found very useful for secondary school reference work. Clarence Perkins.

HOLLINGS, MARY A. Europe in Renaissance and Reformation, 1453-1659. New York, The Macmillan Company. Pp. xxiii, 275. 90 cents.

This is the fourth volume of the series to which the preceding volume belongs. Somewhat the same criticisms may be made of it, especially with regard to the emphasis on political history. The Renaissance is hardly more than mentioned incidentally; and, while there are chapters dealing with "The Reformation," "The Counter Reformation," and "The French Reformation," they give quite too brief, in fact almost wholly inadequate treatment of the great religious, economic, and intellectual movements of the time. Pages 1-114 are devoted to an excellent account of the political history of Europe from 1453 to 1527, abounding in brilliant characterizations of prominent men; but the chapters purporting to deal with the religious movements are contained in sixty-two pages, and even here the political point of view is maintained and these chapters are taken up largely with the political and military events. Thirty pages are given to the Italian Wars from 1496 to 1518, while Germany from 1517 to 1555 takes only twenty-four pages. The expository and interpretative passages dealing with politics are excellent though rather too brief, apparently condensed to give space for too many factual details in the narrative. Some parts of the book can be recommended for high school reference reading. Clarence Perkins.

KEATINGE, M. W. Studies in the Teaching of History. London, Adam and Charles Black. Pp. 232. \$1.60.

Not all of the recognized problems of history-teaching receive consideration in these studies and the American reader will look in vain for more than slight references to such vexing subjects as note-taking and supplementary reading. But the subjects taken up are, nevertheless, vital ones and are discussed thoughtfully and suggestively. Especially valuable for the American teacher are the chapters on The Problems of Method and Value, Scientific Method in History and The Problems of the School, Contemporary Documents as a Basis of Method, and Contemporary Documents as Atmosphere. The author lays much emphasis throughout his book on the need of problem-setting in history-teaching, and if these Studies had no other merit, his strong presentation of this topic would alone make them thoroughly worth reading.

Wayland J. Chase.

OMAN, CHARLES. England Before the Norman Conquest. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxi, 679. \$3.00.

In this, the initial volume of the History of England in Six Volumes, of which Professor Oman is general editor, we have what is in many respects the most satisfactory account of Old English history that has thus far been published. It is natural to compare this work with that of Mr. Hodgkin for the same period that appeared a few years ago; it is somewhat larger; it is far more detailed on the earlier periods, one-fourth of the whole being given to the Celtic and Roman periods; it also goes more extensively into the history of the petty kingdoms of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries. The genial spirit that characterizes Mr. Hodgkin's writings is wholly absent; in its place, however, we have evidences of long labor, fruitful thinking, and critical study. In many instances the author has abandoned the traditional views and has given us new interpretations, which as a rule are well-maintained. The work is essentially a narrative history; on social and institutional matters it is brief and disappointing. In his attitude toward his subject, Professor Oman is sympathetic; he has strong faith in the native excellencies of the Saxon race, and does not share the older view that the Norman conquest was necessary to the greatness of England. Teachers will find the work stimulating and informing, but for use in secondary schools it is not well adapted; it is planned on too large a scale, and deals of necessity very largely with matters that are vague and problematic. Classes in high school have to deal with the great, vital realities, in which English history fortunately abounds. Laurence M. Larson.

# The Teaching of Citizenship

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN, PH.D., BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH, NEW YORK.

**"TEACHING WATERBURY."**—Last year the Bureau of Municipal Research issued a bulletin with the title, "Chicago is New Study in Chicago Schools," and quoted a clipping from the "New York World," in which the new course in local geography and civics instituted by Mrs. Young in the eighth grade was described. Superintendent B. W. Tinker, of Waterbury, Conn., promptly answered by an article in the "Waterbury Republican," describing the more comprehensive courses in local geography, history and civics which had been in existence in Waterbury schools in all grades for eleven years. Teachers of history and civics will doubtless be interested in the booklets issued by the Waterbury department of education in which these courses are outlined, and will see possibilities of adapting this method of teaching to their own localities: "Civics, Compiled from the City Charter and Other Sources, 1910;" "Outline of Work in Geography, 1908;" "A Syllabus for Work in Local History, 1905."

**OTHER CITIES.**—To discover what superintendents have outlined or suggested regarding methods of teaching citizenship in their annual reports the Bureau of Municipal Research has made a brief survey of about 100 reports at its disposal.

The Boston School Report for 1909 contains an interesting outline for the study of local history and local government in the eighth grade. Pupils there learn Boston history by becoming familiar with the noted buildings, old burying-grounds, monuments, gardens, squares, parks, streets, and learn the significance of historic names given to school buildings. A series of history trips is also outlined, and excursions to Boston suggested for children from suburbs and outlying districts.

In Newport, R. I., the work in civics is thus described by Superintendent Lull in his last school report (1909-1910): "For several years the city, State and national elections have received timely attention, but without much forethought. For the city and State election of last November and December definite synopses were prepared and sample bulletins furnished for grades III-X. One of these is as follows:

## Teaching Civics.

Copy of Bulletin Issued by Public Schools, Newport, R. I., Herbert W. Lull, Supt. State Election, Tuesday, Nov. 8, 1910.

**Grades III-IX:**—Teachers of those grades are requested to see that their pupils understand some of the following data. The amount should increase with the age of the pupils. Explain: "State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations."

**BALLOT:** Five parties and independent voters. May write other names. May vote

a "straight ticket." No educational requirement. Voters may have help to read and mark ballots. Note party symbols; five State officials; five representative districts in city; one State senator; one national representative.

**TERMS:** General assembly, capital, capitol, elect.

**VOTERS:** Male citizens of the U. S.; 21 years old; in State two years (real estate owners only one year); in city six months; on voting list.

**CLASSES:** (1) Real Estate; (2) personal property; (3) "by reason of being registered." 1 and 2 pay a tax on at least \$134. 3 cannot vote for aldermen and members of representative council, or any proposition to impose a tax or for the expenditure of money in any city or town; BUT all voters can vote the whole State ticket Tuesday, November 8th.

**NOVEMBER 9th:** Results of election. Name of governor, state senator, and representative to congress "elect." State officials take office in January and the congressman next March.

**N. B.:** There is also a separate ballot for November 8th:—"Will this city grant licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors?"

(Preserve this for the city election in December.)

"Later four lists of simple topics relating to the fire, the police, the street and highway, and the health departments of Newport were assigned. . . . The reference book for teachers and pupils was 'The City Documents.' . . . In all the four divisions the question was, 'How does this department affect the life of the pupil and what ought he to do to aid in the good work?' A month was given for study of an individual department, and then every pupil wrote a general report on being helpful to the city, either by doing something or by refraining from action. Newport also has a League of Good Citizenship, organized last year, which includes pupils of the last five grades. . . . A city ordinance was discussed at each meeting, and copied into the children's notebooks."

In Pawtucket, R. I., "more than 200 pupils of the district are subscribers to a little school paper 'Current Events.' . . . This paper is systematically used in the class-rooms to supplement the work in civics, history and geography, to form a basis for simple debates, and to furnish material for compositions." (School Report for 1909-1910.)

Superintendent Cherry, of Bowling Green, Ky., says: "Many opportunities present themselves to the wide-awake teacher to instill in the child mind a love of home and country. The patriotic feelings, however, should not be aroused without an attempt . . . to give the child some insight into the simple principles of a free government.

Show how laws are framed, how we live in a community of interests dependent upon one another. From the community interests of a neighborhood, go to the State and nation, showing how each respectively is made up of counties and States that are interdependent. Explain the need of taxes, officers to make, explain and execute laws. . . . Explain how each citizen and each student is a part of the government, . . . and responsible to some extent for its welfare. . . . Study the school as a miniature government, tracing the resemblances between it and the State." (Report for 1908-09.)

Superintendent Dyer, in the 1909 school report for Cincinnati, mentions among the topics discussed in the course in civics in the eighth grade: "The Family and Its Relations to the Community," "The Protection of Health," "The Protection of Property and Life," "Business Life of the Community," "Government and Business," "Education," "Civic Beauty," "Charity and Correction," "How the Community Governs Itself," "The Government of Our City in Detail," etc.

## Civics by Legislation.

In the following five States, the teaching of citizenship finds a just place upon the statute books:

In Connecticut "the duties of citizenship shall be taught in the public schools. The State Board of Education shall prepare and distribute to every school an outline of questions and suggestions relating to said subject, and said outline may be used in said schools." (1903.)

In North Carolina provision is made in the law of 1905 for the teaching of the elements of civil government in the public schools.

Delaware requires (1907) that the Constitution of the State be taught and explained to all public school pupils.

Maine has a law, enacted in 1907, to encourage the compiling and teaching of local history and local geography in the public schools. The law provides for the appointment of a State historian who shall compile historical data of the State and encourage the teaching of the same in the public schools; who shall also encourage the compiling of town histories, combined with local geography, suitable for use in the grammar and high schools, and approve the same for publication. The law further provides for expenses of State historian (annual maximum, \$500) and for State aid (maximum, \$150) to towns publishing such local histories and geographies.

In California civics takes its place among the statutory school studies. (School Law, 1909.)



# Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, PH.D., EDITOR.

(Conducted with the co-operation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr., University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, California.)

—In the "Century Magazine" for November, Professor Arthur L. Frothingham traces the steps by which he came to identify the Emperor Aurelian's sarcophagus in the Vatican.

—In "Blackwood's" for October, W. Greswell discusses the battle of Edington. A. D. 878.

—Professor Frederick J. Turner delivered the commencement address at Indiana University (Indiana University Bulletin, June 15th) upon "Pioneer Ideals and the State University."

—Professor Felix E. Schelling's recent address at the opening of the Graduate School at Pennsylvania deals with "The Teacher and the Investigator." ("Old Penn," October 22d.)

—The treatment of "The Geography and Geology of Political Opinion," by Kenelm D. Cotes, in the "Westminster Review" for October, results in a rather confused presentation of many facts tending to show the relation between the physical characteristics and the politics and religion of various countries, especially of the British Isles.

—In the "Revista de Archivos," the veteran Arabist, Eduardo Saavedra, begins a fresh account of the fortunes of the founder of the Omeyyad dynasty in the West. The narrative in the May-June number opens with the narrow escape of Abderrahmen from his home in the province of Aleppo, consequent upon the fall of his house in the East, in 750, and traces his career until he is firmly established upon the throne of Cordova.

—"Middle-Class Life Two Hundred Years Ago," by C. S. Tomea ("Nineteenth Century," September; "Living Age," October 29th), relates to Francis Taylor, who was a well-to-do village squire living in South Littleton, near Evesham. "A Mediæval Baron's Household," an illustrated article by G. G. Coulton in "Harper's Magazine" for November, deals with the affairs of the Earl of Northumberland. M. le Vicomte Georges d'Avenal continues his series in the "Revue des Deux Mondes," with an article in the October number upon mediæval castles and gardens.

—"General William T. Sherman as a History Teacher" ("Educational Review," October) is the title of an article by Walter L. Fleming, in which is set forth Sherman's brief career as a teacher of geography and history while Superintendent of

Louisiana State Seminary from 1859 to the breaking out of the Civil War. His Friday evening lectures were popular. "One of his students said of him: 'Much given to silence and the keeping of his own counsel, he was fluent and eloquent when he spoke. I have heard him lecture charmingly to the assembled students on the history of his country, selecting by preference chapters of exploration and adventure, or heroic struggle and enterprise, such as gave to the Union the territory of Texas and the Great West.'"

—In the "Nineteenth Century," beginning with the September number, the Rev. A. H. T. Clarke offers an appreciation of "The Genius of Gibbon," first as a man, second as an historian, third as to his attitude toward the early church. The author's regard for Gibbon, while not unbounded, is very great: "He seems to unite in himself every species of intellectual excellence. His history alone is a monument of German thoroughness, of French lucidity, of English judgment. This last, indeed, was perhaps his happiest gift." Incidentally the author bestows a deserved tribute upon Mr. Bury, the latest editor of the history, whom he rates "in learning second to Gibbon, in scholarship superior."

—Hilaire Belloc contributes to "The Catholic World" for October a discussion of "The Catholic Conscience of History," in which he dwells upon the difficulty experienced by Protestants in understanding, and hence in explaining some topics of European history—e.g., the incident of Thomas a-Becket. "The Catholic can appreciate what other men only judge, and can determine and know these things upon which other men have no more than a puzzled guess."

—A parallel between Leopold von Ranke and Johann Gustav Droysen, at the hands of Dr. Otto Diether ("Preussische Jahrbuecher," October), is occasioned by the recent publication of the first volume of a life of Droysen by his son, the recently deceased Professor Gustav Droysen, of Halle. While the two great historians had much in common, the writer points out, their essential points of view were different; for while Ranke regarded the present from the past, viewing the stirring politics of his day with an historical perspective, Droysen preferred to view the past from the present, and to draw lessons therefrom for immediate guidance.

—In a communication to the "Dial" (October 1st), Charles Woodward Hutson pleads "that the writers of history should return to the spirit and methods of Macaulay; that they should try at least to do their digesting of documents before they

## ESSAYS ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

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begin their real work, and then should seek to acquire some skill in the use of his variety of statement, his art in emphasis, his illuminating allusiveness, his compass of view, his sense of perspective, his sweep and flow of coherent narrative, and, above all, his capacity to breathe into his characters the breath of life."

—The answer of "J. W. T." to the above (October 16th) is to the effect that Macaulay was a great literary artist, and as such stood alone among the historians of his own day; that Macaulay wrote about almost purely political history, while historians must now treat of other phases, economic, social, psychological, and necessarily their treatment must differ from his; that noted present-day writers do look up to Macaulay—as in the cases of Freeman and J. F. Rhodes; lastly, that to instance English writers alone, the names of Lecky, Creighton, Hodgkin, Maitland, Parkmen and Rhodes, are sufficient to disprove the thesis that historical writing has degenerated. "To sum up: English poetry has had but one Shakespeare; English prose has had but one Macaulay. An art like unto theirs was a gift of the gods. But is there not as great a charm—in some sense a greater charm—in that conscientious endeavor minutely to present historical truth without fear and without reproach, which is, as Coulanges finely said, the chastity of history? The spirit of historical research was never broader or deeper than now, and that spirit is the spirit of truth. 'Human affairs,' said Richter, 'are neither to be laughed at nor wept over, but to be understood.' And to the truth of that utterance a host of historical scholars to-day are testifying, both in Europe and America."

## RECENT HISTORY

### The November Elections

By JOHN HAYNES, PH.D.

As indicated by the best press returns available at the time of writing, the Democrats have secured control, in the elections of the present year, of the National House of Representatives by a majority of sixty, have gained eight members in the Senate, and have secured a net gain of at least five governors of states. As a result of the primary elections, the number of Progressive Republicans in both the House and Senate is increased. They will hold the balance of power in the Senate. While there were some exceptions, the Republicans made the best showing where they were most progressive. Besides, there has been a decided shifting to progressive policies by those hitherto allied with the regulars. The remarkable success of the progressives in the Republican party together with the return of a majority of Democrats in the House, constitutes an adverse decision of the country on the recent policy of the dominant wing of the Republican party which has seldom, if ever, been equaled.

One of the most striking incidents of the campaign was the defeat in the Republican Convention of Vice-President Sherman and the members of the "old guard" in New York State, who were opposed to direct primaries, by ex-President Roosevelt and his followers. The part taken in this contest by Roosevelt and the advanced doctrines advocated by him under the name of the "new nationalism" while on a speaking tour about the first of September, during which he almost entirely ignored President Taft, is thought by some to have contributed to Republican defeat. Probably his activity in these ways and as a speaker in the campaign, had very little effect on the general result, while in New York the party would probably have sustained a worse defeat if the old leaders had remained in control.

The voting of this year renders very improbable the re-election of the President, and makes more than likely the choice of a Democrat over any Republican nominee. The next revision of the tariff, whoever makes it, will be distinctly downward. The cause of the popular election of United States Senators, and the prospects of the pending income tax amendments to the Federal Constitution are decidedly advanced by the increased power of Democrats and progressive Republicans. Proposals for extending the direct primary and adopting the initiative and referendum, will have a better chance than ever before.

Two important changes in state constitutions have been made by the people. Arkansas has adopted a provision for the initiative and referendum and Washington has extended the suffrage to women.

## Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

### NOTES.

Professor R. M. Black, of Wahpeton, has been elected President of the North Dakota History Teachers' Association.

Edward Channing, Ph. D., of Harvard University, has been assigned the Woodbury Lowery Fellowship for Research in Foreign Archives for the years 1910-1911 and 1911-1912.

The teachers of history in the five high schools of Seattle, Washington, meet three or four times a year for a discussion of methods of teaching history and civics. This year they meet once a week for a formal lecture given by one of the professors of the University of Washington.

Mr. W. Watson Davis has been appointed assistant professor of American history in the University of Kansas. Mr. Davis is a graduate of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute. His graduate work has been done at Columbia and the Sorbonne. He has previously taught both at Alabama and Columbia.

At the recent meeting of the Kansas State Teachers' Association, a Kansas History Teachers' Association was organized. Professor F. H. Hodder, head of the department of history in the University of Kansas, was elected president, and Miss Bertha Hamilton, of Emporia, was elected secretary and treasurer.

The National Conservation Association was formed on July 29th, 1909, after the United States Congress had refused further support to the National Conservation Commission. The first president of the association was Dr. Charles W. Eliot. He shortly resigned, and his place was taken by Gifford Pinchot, Dr. Eliot remaining as honorary president.

The association is fighting for "the prompt and orderly development of our national resources, for the welfare of ourselves and our children, and for the rights of plain people. The association is bound neither by political considerations nor by official connections. It is free to speak the whole truth."

The association is interested in answering the question not whether our national resources shall be conserved or destroyed, but rather for whom shall the national resources be conserved, and who shall reap the benefit. It opposes all measures in conflict with rational conservation. It urges the protection of the source-waters of navigable streams, effective laws for the prevention of forest fires, legislation for the care of forests, and the preparation of a comprehensive plan for inland waterway improvement. The association advocates legislation whereby the title to the surface of public lands and to the minerals therein shall be granted separately. It urges the retaining by the government of the title to all public lands which contain phosphate rocks, oil, coal or natural gas.

The headquarters of the association are in Washington, and further information concerning its work can be obtained from Secretary Thomas R. Shipp, Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

### HISTORICAL SITES AND MONUMENTS.

The committee of the American Historical Association, appointed at the New York meeting to determine what services the association could render toward marking places associated with memorable incidents in American history, has undertaken as a preliminary task the investigation of what has been done and what remains to be done

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in the proper marking of historical sites. The committee, composed of Edwin E. Sparks, Edward S. Meany, Henry E. Bourne, Frank S. Severance and Reuben Gold Thwaites, has recently sent out a questionnaire addressed to persons interested in local history in the several sections of the country assigned to each one of the members of the committee. The following questions are put:

1. (a) What historic places in your State have been marked? (b) What plans are in prospect for other places and under what auspices? Name of person or society most interested. (c) What places are without mark or definite plans for marking? (Burial places may be excluded except in unusual cases.)

2. Give titles of any proceedings, addresses, etc., on occasion of marking historic places in your State.

3. Give names of any associations at work in your State along these lines with address of some official.

4. Kindly add any suggestions or information which would be of service to the committee.

All persons interested in historical study and in encouraging local interest in memorable incidents are requested to furnish information to the chairman, Dr. Sparks, or to any of the other members of the committee.

#### Political Science Association.

The Seventh Annual Meeting of the American Political Science Association will be held in St. Louis, Mo., from December 27 to 30, 1910. The American Economic Association, the American Sociological So-

ciety, the Association for Labor Legislation and the American Statistical Society will hold their meetings in the same city on the same days; and there will be several joint sessions of these kindred organizations. At the first session, on the evening of Tuesday, December 27, the addresses of Presidents Woodrow Wilson, of the Political Science Association, and Edmund J. James, of the Economic Association, will be delivered. There will be a session on Recent Constitutional Developments in Europe, including papers on the British House of Lords, Tendencies Toward Ministerial Responsibility in Germany, the Russian Duma and the Turkish Parliament. A session on State Government, to be addressed by several State Governors, is planned. At other sessions the following topics will be discussed: judicial organization and procedure, taxation, primary elections, municipal government, and political theory.

#### The Wisconsin Meeting.

The Wisconsin History Teachers' Association held its regular meeting on Thursday, November 3, forty-five members and friends attending the luncheon. Professor Carl Pray, of the Milwaukee Normal School, acted as toastmaster. General Estabrook, who was instrumental in having the Wisconsin Historical Commission appointed, spoke on the work of the commission in having Wisconsin's Civil War history published. Doctor Carl Fish, of the University of Wisconsin, gave his impressions of Rome. He spoke of Rome's idealism as contrasted with America's materialism, and of Rome as being the farthest one could get away from the frontier; as one approached Rome one was leaving the fron-

tier behind him, but as he passed through Rome and on beyond, he was drawing nearer to a frontier. Miss Gertrude Hull spoke a few words of welcome to Professor Paxson who responded. After the luncheon, the main programme of the session as printed in the November number of the MAGAZINE was carried out.

In connection with his address on Re-

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### RATINGS IN HISTORY AND OTHER SUBJECTS

At the 1910 Examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board. Condensed from page 65 of Secretary Fiske's Report for 1910.

	Number of Candidates	Ratings 90-100 %	Ratings 75-89 %	Ratings 60-74 %	Ratings 50-59 %	Ratings 40-49 %	Ratings 30-39 %	Ratings 20-29 %	Ratings 10-19 %	Ratings 0-9 %
English	3,116	0.9	11.6	36.3	18.5	16.0	16.7	48.8	67.3	83.3
History:										
a. Ancient	779	1.7	7.6	34.3	13.6	18.5	24.4	43.6	57.2	75.7
b. Medieval and Modern	45	2.2	2.2	11.1	20.0	28.9	35.6	15.5	35.5	64.4
c. English	424	0.9	5.9	25.2	12.0	12.3	43.6	32.0	44.0	57.3
d. American	606	0.5	10.1	24.8	16.8	20.6	27.2	35.4	52.2	72.8
	1,854	1.1	7.9	28.5	14.5	18.0	30.0	37.5	52.0	70.0
Latin	6,935	2.9	18.3	31.6	12.6	12.9	21.8	52.8	65.4	78.3
Greek	1,093	3.8	22.6	33.0	11.2	9.8	19.6	59.4	70.6	80.4
French	1,885	3.1	16.0	36.2	11.4	14.9	18.4	55.3	66.7	81.6
German	1,735	1.6	19.8	29.2	13.5	12.6	23.3	50.6	64.1	76.7
Spanish	22	18.2	13.6	18.2	4.5	13.6	31.8	50.0	54.5	68.1
Mathematics	4,314	7.3	16.4	26.8	12.2	12.2	25.1	50.5	62.7	74.9
Physics	695	5.6	23.2	28.1	9.5	11.7	22.0	56.9	66.4	78.1
Chemistry	403	2.7	16.9	41.2	13.2	13.6	12.4	60.1	74.0	87.6
Botany	16	0.0	18.8	25.0	6.3	18.8	31.3	43.8	50.1	68.9
Geography	12	0.0	50.0	41.7	8.3	0.0	0.0	91.7	100.0	100.0
Zoology	8	0.0	25.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Drawing	90	2.2	5.6	53.0	2.2	11.1	25.6	61.1	63.3	74.4
Music	11	0.0	0.0	9.1	18.2	9.1	63.6	9.1	27.3	36.4
Total	22,189	3.4	16.3	31.5	13.3	13.6	22.0	51.2	64.5	78.1
Ratings in all History Papers in the 1909 Examinations	1,711	0.9	7.6	31.0	11.5	17.5	31.4	39.6	51.0	68.6

cent English Politics, Professor Dennis had a quantity of very interesting English election posters which he had collected on his visit to England during the last parliamentary election. These posters covered in a very graphic way, all the issues of the campaign. He made these posters the text for his talk which was exceedingly interesting and valuable. Professor Gillette spoke of fearlessness in teaching the truth and denounced the recent effort to hamper academic freedom of the university. He believed in teaching high school pupils present-day problems, such as the new insurgent movement and its leaders.

#### THE NEW ENGLAND MEETING.

The annual meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association was held in Boston at Simmons College on Saturday, October 29th, 1910. The subject for discussion in the morning was the "Teaching of Economics in Secondary Schools," and the association was fortunate in having present to open the discussion Professor F. W. Taussig, of Harvard University. Professor Taussig considered first the question of expediency. The instinctive feeling of most college professors is against the advisability of teaching economics to pupils of the secondary schools. For that matter, however, it has generally been the same with most of the new subjects which have found their way into the secondary schools, such as chemistry, physics, and modern history. College professors generally prefer to have the material fresh and uninstructed in their subjects. Professor Taussig's own feeling, however, for a long time has been that economics is a desirable subject for introduction, and that it should find a place in the secondary schools. It has already been introduced in many schools west of the Alleghenies. The subject is a very helpful one, as it opens the eyes of pupils to the importance of many public problems. It is better, however, for the pupil who is going to college to wait until his college course before taking up the subject. In spite of some curious results at Harvard entrance examinations, Professor Taussig still believes in keeping economics on the list.

He next considered the difficulties of the subject, which are great. The reasoning required is found difficult and authorities differ on some very important subjects. Still, the amount of difference has been exaggerated. There is a large amount of accepted truth which can be satisfactorily taught. Another difficulty in teaching the subject is the lack of satisfactory text-books. Most secondary school text-books are college books condensed. There should be a new, fresh and special treatment of the subject for High School pupils. One unsatisfactory feature of most text-books is the order of treatment of the topics. They generally begin with some abstract

considerations, together with something of the method of treatment of economics. As a matter of fact, the subject should begin in a very concrete way such as considering the topic of money. In teaching the subject to High School pupils, the teacher should select topics and not try to cover the whole subject. The topics should include those of every day experience, and deal also with some familiar fallacies, such as the question of the benefits derived by large expenditures of the rich for automobiles, balls and entertainments of that sort. Finally, Professor Taussig urged that the new subject should not be given to new and inexperienced teachers. Only teachers specially trained in economics beyond the ordinary college course should be put in charge. In his concluding remarks, following the general discussion, Professor Taussig said that over fifty per cent. of those who offer economics for admission to Harvard have failed in that subject. A problem which the college authorities would have to meet is the question of what shall be done with the students who pass the subject for admission, and yet wish to take the college introductory course and receive full credit for it.

The discussion of Professor Taussig's paper was opened by Doctor John Haynes, of the Dorchester High School, who emphasized the point that a pupil should know the fundamental principles of the subjects discussed by Congress as well as the methods of legislation. Doctor Haynes also described his use of newspaper clippings in his class in economics.

The discussion was continued by Mr. Tirrell, of the High School of Commerce, Boston. As the aim of his school is to fit boys for business, a knowledge of economic principles is indispensable. The work actually begins in the second year of the course under the name of Commercial Geography. In the third year the History of Commerce is studied, and in the fourth year the general principles of economics, together with the economic history of the United States. In this latter year a text-book on economic theory is used.

Professor S. M. Kingsbury, of Simmons College, spoke of an experiment in the Bos-

ton Trade School for Girls, in giving them some insight into the history of their occupation. The class began with a study of the conditions under which New England was settled, then took up the development of shipping, the growth of the factory system, based first upon water power and then its development to the present time in the use of electrical power; then a brief study of factory laws was made. The result of this brief course was to broaden the outlook of the girls by enabling them to see just what part they took in the great industrial world.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard, of the High School of Practical Arts, Boston, brought out the point that economics should be taught all along the line in connection with history; beginning with the early cave dweller, and continuing on down to the present highly organized industrial world.

The guests of the association at luncheon were Professor Frederic J. Turner, of Harvard University, and President Frank W. Hamilton, of Tufts College. Professor Turner spoke of the importance of selecting the three or four most essential lines of development, and emphasizing those to the exclusion of much that is now taught in American history.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Professor Susan M. Kingsbury, of Simmons College; vice-president, Mr. A. C. Boyden, of the Bridgewater Normal School; secretary and treasurer, Mr. Walter H. Cushing, of the Framingham High School. Additional members of the council, Miss Margaret McGill, of the Newton High School; Miss Harriet E. Tuell, of the Somerville English High School; Professor W. S. Ferguson, of Harvard University, and Mr. S. P. R. Chadwick, of Phillips Exeter Academy.

The association is taking steps to become incorporated under the laws of Massachusetts. About thirty new members were admitted, and an active campaign is under way to add two hundred members before the spring meeting.

Resolutions were adopted on the death of Mr. Wilson R. Butler, who had done a large part of the work in preparing the "Outline in Civil Government."

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## Book Reviews

### KAYE'S READINGS.

A book upon civil government, for the use of students in the last year of high-school work, should be written with two purposes in view: first, the furnishing of information concerning governmental machinery, which cannot successfully be treated in the lower grades; second, the creation in the student of a healthy attitude of interest and criticism toward things political.

The latest book of this character is Dr. Kaye's "Readings in Civil Government." This is a work of over five hundred pages, containing illustrative material for collateral reading in high-school classes in government. The divisions of the subject parallel the chapter headings in Dr. Forman's "Advanced Civics," but the work can readily be used with any other high-school textbook. There are twenty-two chapters grouped under the three headings of "The Spirit of American Government," "The Form of American Government," and "The Functions of Government." The first group of subjects treats of the general principles of government, the formation of the Federal constitution, development of the constitution, relations between State and Federal governments, citizenship, and political rights and duties. The second group treats of the several forms of government in this country, including, under the term form, the organization of political parties. The third group includes readings upon individual freedom and law, taxation, finance, currency and banking, regulation of commerce, and elections.

The readings are taken from standard texts upon political science, from popular and technical magazines, and—very rarely—from public political documents. The extracts represent uniformly the cleanest and sanest of recent views. If called upon to describe them in a single word, the reviewer would use the term "progressive." A pupil who studies them carefully will leave the course with a keenness of judgment upon matters political; he will realize that government in America is not a fetish requiring sacred reverence for established forms, but that it is in a state of change; and that much of what is should not be, while much that is not should be brought into being.

Does the work conform to the ideal stated in the first paragraph above? Not fully; it presents too much opinion and too little fact; and not always are both sides of a debatable question presented, as upon the subject of negro suffrage in the South. The book is not a source-book; it gives few practical illustrations of the workings of government. In no sense does it take the place, even in high-school classes, of the books of readings edited by Prof. Reinsch and by Prof. Beard. But,

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Head Department of History, University of Missouri.

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probably, the book was not intended to take such a place. Its real mission is to stimulate the high-school pupil to an intelligent discussion of current political problems; to give him the best thought upon these topics; and to place him in a position to make an independent judgment when he (or she) becomes not only a citizen, but also a voter and a public official.

[Readings in Civil Government. By Percy Lewis Kaye, Ph.D., pp. xvi, 535. The Century Co. Price, \$1.20, net.]

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the story is kept up by a series of descriptions of what the colonial children did for themselves or saw acted about them.

The child of nine years of age will find much of interest in these books. As there is little conversation, and no attempt at continuous history, the author has opportunity to describe in detail many features of colonial life, which cannot be touched upon in an ordinary textbook, or which are lost for the child in the excitement of the plot in more stirring stories. Many features of Indian life are here told: the methods of making canoes; the gathering of shells for wampum; the planting and grinding of corn; and their relations to the whites. More valuable are the glimpses of the life of the colonists themselves; for, by reading these books, a child can picture the home-life of the colonists; he can see the mode of dress, the arrangement of their living rooms, the working of the farm, the hunting of game, the apprenticeship system, and through the eyes of a colonial boy he sees some of the great men of the day.

The style is easy, and sometimes even quaint in its simplicity. The historic facts cited are unusually well selected; and in some cases there is only a change to a simplified language from the words of the original historical sources. The illustrations are in keeping with the narrative; they are usually simple line drawings, showing the modes of dress, the utensils, and the out-door life of the times. The volumes are bound in decorated cloth, and average about 160 pages each.

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